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EXPERIMENTAL QUIET SPROCKET DESIGN AND NOISE REDUCTION

IN TRACKED VEHICLES

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## U. S. ARMY HUMAN ENGINEERING LABORATORY

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The noise produced by track-laying vehicles has hi in the US Army. Exterior noise provides enemy for tection at great distances. Interior vehicle person-to-person or electrically-aided communicating excessive hearing loss among exposed personnel.	ces with a means of de- noise prevents accurate

vehicle noise. The goals established were a 15 dB(A) reduction in interior

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### 20. ABSTRACT (Continued)

noise to a level meeting the 100dB(A) limit of MIL-STD-1474B, and a 6 dB reduction in exterior noise, representing a 50% reduction in detection range.

The work presently being reported, which is the third phase of the program, involved the design and fabrication of a high compliance prototype idler and a high compliance experimental sprocket. The idler provided a reduction of 15 dB(A) of idler-contributed noise and the sprocket provided approximately 10 dB(A) of sprocket-contributed noise.

This report provides a comparison of the hull dynamics of the M113A1 and the AIFV in order to determine the reason for the significantly lower noise level of the AIFV.

A preliminary finite element analysis was made to determine if this technique could be used to predict the dynamic response of the hull with the ultimate aim of providing a method of predicting hull configuration to achieve significant noise reduction.

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#### EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

THIS STUDY SHOWED THAT CONVENTIONAL NOISE REDUCTION TECHNIQUES ARE ONLY MARGINALLY EFFECTIVE IN TRACKED VEHICLES. BASED ON A SPECIAL COMPUTER PROGRAM PREDICTION, IT SHOULD BE POSSIBLE TO ACHIEVE A 65% NOISE REDUCTION INSIDE AN M113 HULL BY REDESIGNING THE IDLER AND SPROCKET AND ISOLATING THE ROADWHEELS. THE ADDITIONAL NOISE REDUCTION TO MEET MIL-STD-1474B SHOULD COME ABOUT THROUGH HULL MODIFICATIONS. FULL SCALE SUSPENSION HARDWARE HAS DEMONSTRATED THAT THE ABOVE GOAL IS REALISTICALLY ACHIEVABLE.

The noise produced by track-laying vehicles has historically been a problem in the U.S. Army. Exterior vehicle noise provides enemy forces with a means of detection at great distances. Interior vehicle noise prevents accurate person-to-person or electrically aided communication and contributes to hearing loss among exposed Army personnel.

If the Army is to provide personnel with armored vehicles having maximum effectiveness, noise must be reduced to the limits prescribed by MIL-STD-To accomplish this end, a multiphase program has been conducted to develop a thorough understanding of the noise sources, the acoustical vibratory paths through which energy enters the hull structure. and the mechanisms by which noise arrives at the various crew locations, and emanates from the exterior of the vehicle. Based upon the results of these analyses, the redesign of major noise-producing components and the application of new materials and coatings will then be undermaken. The vehicle chosen to develop this noise reduction technology is the The goals set for the program were a 17 dB(A) reduction in interior noise to a level of 100 dB(A), and a 6 dB reduction in exterior a 50% reduction in detection range. This report representing describes the third phase of the program to reduce the noise of armored track-laying vehicles to the above goals.

Phase I of the program isolated and rank ordered the various noise sources responsible for overall noise, developed a computer program to predict changes in noise level produced by changes in track and suspension systems, and provided an understanding of the noise producing mechanism of vehicles such as the M113A1. This phase found that track-idler interaction was the major source of noise with the sprocket and roadwheels being the second and third sources, respectively.

Phase II developed the concepts necessary to reduce suspension system noise, and produced an experimental idler to verify the noise reduction capability of these concepts. The vibratory power flow of the M113A1 hull was analyzed and experimental damping, absorptive, and barrier treatments were evaluated along with experimental modifications.

The present phase (III) involved designing and fabricating a prototype quiet idler and an experimental quiet sprocket. Also the hull dynamics of the MII3AI and the AIFV (both of similar size and suspension) were compared to determine the reason for the significantly lower noise level of the AIFV. A preliminary finite element analysis was made to determine

if this technique could be used to predict the vibrational mode shapes and dynamic response of the M113Al vehicle with the ultimate aim of predicting the hull configuration required to achieve significant noise reduction.

Based upon the conclusion that the idler is the major noise contributor, a completely new design of the idler wheel was pursued. The design proceeded in two steps, the first being a verification of the concept that an increase in compliance of the wheel rim would indeed reduce This idler wheel was designed to permit experimental variations of radial, tangential and axial compliance. The second step was a practical design which incorporated those features determined to be most appropriate in the experimental version of the idler. This prototype idler wheel was designed with the goal of being practical, increasing noise reduction potential, and being directly interchangeable with the standard idler wheel. It has a solid outer rim mounted on two rubber "doughnuts" acting in shear which isolate the rim from the axle. The maximum stroke of the rim when contacting the track is 3/4 inch, with a fail-safe stop in the event of a severe impact upon the idler. Measurements on the test stand indicate that this prototype idler wheel reduces interior idler generated noise by 15 dB(A) to a sound level of 95 dB(A) at a speed of 30 Limited durability tests at 30 mph indicate that this idler wheel is both durable and practical.

The idler contribution to the exterior acoustic signature was reduced to well below the level of exhaust noise. If the sprockets and roadwheels can be quieted as much as the idler, then suspension-related noise would no longer lead to vehicle detection, even at high speeds, as the exhaust noise would then be dominant.

Based upon the concepts developed for the idler, an experimental sprocket has been developed using a number of rubber "doughnuts" to isolate the axle from the outer rim. However, a compliant sprocket is significantly more complicated since it must be capable of transmitting torque through the compliant element. Also, it must have fail-safe stops in the tangential as well as the radial direction. Tests of the experimental sprocket indicate that it is up to  $10~\mathrm{dB}(\mathrm{A})$  quieter than the noise produced by a standard sprocket. Although noise reduction is less than that provided by the prototype idler and the design is more complex, it is anticipated that the second generation sprocket design will be practical and will provide  $12\text{-}15~\mathrm{dB}(\mathrm{A})$  noise reduction.

The next subject which was addressed in Phase III was the comparison of the noise of the M113Al with that of the AIFV. A-weighted noise levels inside the AIFV vehicles and structural vibration levels on the hull of the vehicle are on the average, 5 dB lower than for M113Al vehicles. Although the track and suspension of both vehicles are essentially the same the upper hull shape and idler attachment are different. These differences were investigated using the concepts of statistical energy analysis for hull generated noise and the attachment transfer function to investigate idler generated noise. It was concluded from this analysis that the major hull radiating elements are the bottom plates and upper side

plates at low frequencies for the AIFV vehicle. For the M113A1 vehicle the top plate is dominant and the side plates are still important. At higher frequencies (above 500 Hz), the sponsons dominate the acoustic radiation for both vehicles.

Inertance functions are measures of the power accepting and dissipating characteristics of the hull structure. In general, reductions in idler inertances will lead to reductions in structural response levels, which in turn will lead to reductions in interior noise levels, provided that the acoustic radiation efficiencies of the structural elements are not significantly altered.

At frequencies below 250 Hz, the vertical inertance of both M113A1 and AIFV hulls is greater than that in the horizontal direction. This indicates that if the horizontal and vertical idler input forces were equal, vertical forces would dominate the hull response. However, test track data show the horizontal forces can exceed vertical forces by up to 10 dB for at least one speed during normal operation.

Changes in idler attachment point configuration have no significant effect on vertical inertances. However, the raised idler location for the AIFV vehicle has a lower horizontal inertance (by about 5 dB) in the frequency range 125 Hz to 250 Hz. Therefore, at frequencies above 125 Hz (see Fig. 22, ref. 16), the idler attachment point will, to some extent, affect (by up to 5 dB) the vehicle interior noise levels, at least at a speed of 30 mph.

It was also concluded that changes in the idler stiffness by up to a factor of ten will have no significant effect on the hull structural response or vehicle interior noise levels. This is because power flow into the hull is controlled by relatively flexible hull members with long structural wavelengths. Additionally, the turret mass does not significantly impact the vehicle inertance functions and hence interior noise levels.

Appropriate structural modifications were not immediately obvious from the statistical energy and attachment transfer function analyses, so a finite element analysis was developed to guide the hull redesign process which aims to produce practical hull modifications providing 5 to  $10~\rm{dB}(\Lambda)$  noise reduction. In this analysis technique, the M113A1 is modeled by a number of individual structural components or elements which are interconnected at a number of joints, or nodal points. The simplicity of the M113A1 shape lends itself well to this type of analysis. This analysis technique provides accurate calculation of hull resonance frequencies and mode shapes which, in turn, provides an understanding of the hull power flow for noise control purposes.

The initial model which was made has some accuracy problems. A second model, which was constructed with a greater number of elements, is sufficiently detailed to allow reasonable predictions of mode shapes and resonance frequencies up to frequencies of about 300 Hz. Extension above

400 Hz using the current nodal arrangement is not recommended. Good predictions of the measured <u>vertical</u> idler inertance function have been made with the developed model, but the measured horizontal intertance function is underpredicted by about 10 dB.

A preliminary calculation using frequency and space averaging to predict interior noise levels was encouraging and showed reasonable agreement between measured data and results predicted using finite element analysis for the noise-to-force transfer function corresponding to one third octave band vertical excitation of the idler spindle on the M113A1 vehicle.

Frequency and space average calculations using finite element analysis results indicate that the interior noise levels at frequencies above 31.5 Hz are controlled by resonant response of the hull, rather than by stiffness controlled response as was considered a possibility at an earlier stage of the work. This suggests that, in theory at least, damping of the structure should be an effective means of interior noise control. In practice however it is difficult to effectively damp the important hull members due to the long structural wavelengths involved.

Statistical energy analysis provides a useful framework for understanding the power flow between the hull structure and vehicle interior space, even at low frequencies. This allows frequency averaged interior noise levels to be accurately calculated from frequency and space averaged structural response data which may be measured experimentally or calculated using the finite element model.

Frequency and space averaging of the modal output data (using statistical energy analysis) from the finite element model is the most efficient and useful means of evaluating the effects of hull structure modifications on structural response and hence interior noise levels. It is anticipated that this method will be used in the future to evaluate the effect of hull structural changes on interior noise levels, as evaluating the data mode by mode is tedious and the results are difficult to interpret.

To date, the entire noise reduction program has identified the idler as the major noise source, with the sprocket and roadwheels being 3-4 dB(A) less intense. A computer program has been written to predict the changes in sound level resulting from configuration changes in the track and suspension system. Idler noise has been reduced by the predicted amount of dB(A), and the first generation sprocket design has produced up to a dB(A) reduction. It is anticipated that roadwheel isolation will provide a dB(A) reduction of roadwheel noise. A complete suspension system incorporating the above quieted wheels should provide an interior noise level at least dB(A) (65% noise reduction) quieter than a standard M113 vehicle.

The additional 7 dB(A) of desired noise reduction will be achieved by modifications to the hull. Preliminary results indicate that simple, conventional noise reduction techniques provide only marginal results and

may not be practical. Therefore, a more extensive approach is required to reduce hull generated noise. It is anticipated that hull noise can be reduced by 5-7~dB(A) which combined with the suspension noise reduction will provide the desired total of 17~dB(A). This reduction will produce a vehicle which meets the noise limit of 100~dB(A) prescribed by MIL-STD-1474B.

The fielding of light armored track-laying vehicles meeting this 100 dB(A) limit will provide a vehicle which is less detectable and operates more efficiently, and will permit the crew and cavalry personnel to perform their mission in a more effective manner.

#### 2. OBJECTIVE AND GOALS

The basic objective of this program was to develop feasible noise control concepts to aid in construction of a lightweight tracked vehicle that will permit crew members to perform their duties without the additional use of hearing protectors. They are presently required to use hearing protectors in addition to the DH132 Combat Vehicle Crewman's Helmet. Reduction of the interior noise level also would improve communication between crew members.

Accordingly, the goal of an interior A-weighted noise level of 100dB has been set, in conformance with the guidelines of MIL-STD-1474B, Category B. Achievement of this goal requires a 17 dB(A) noise reduction in the M113A1, primarily at low frequencies. In a weight-critical machine designed for survivability in an extreme environment, this represents a major technical challenge.

The U.S. Army Human Engineering Laboratory (HEL) and the U.S. Army Tank-Automotive Command (TACOM) have recognized that practical design modifications required to achieve significant interior noise reductions were not available. It also was realized that the development of these noise controls must be based on experimental and analytical evaluations of both the noise sources and their transmission paths. Studies prior to the HEL sponsored work [2, 11, 18 and 19] had identified the major noise sources but had not quantified their contributions. Two preceding studies by FMC Corporation, sponsored by HEL, have been conducted. The first study identified the separate contributions to interior noise generated by the idlers, the sprockets, and the roadwheels. This work also identified several promising concepts for tracked vehicle noise reduction. The second study developed an experimental idler to prove and optimize noise reduction concepts. Concepts for reducing hull-generated noise also were explored.

Beginning with the third phase of this program, TACOM, which has recognized the operational advantages of reducing both interior and exterior noise, has provided funding for this joint HEL/TACOM effort. The M113A1 vehicle was chosen as the demonstration vehicle for this study because it was used in the previous HEL-sponsored studies, because of vehicle

availability, and because of the relative availability and low cost of replacement parts. However, all noise reducing concepts developed in this study could be adapted to other tracked vehicles with suitable scaling changes.

Only suspension noise sources were considered in this study. Previous studies [3, 16] have shown that other noise sources are secondary; such as the engine, power train, and final drive gearing. Furthermore, suspension noise sources are common to high-speed tracked vehicle noise problems and the technology needed to successfully reduce the noise from these sources does not exist at present. Developing practical noise controls for these suspension noise sources is the fundamental purpose of this program.

This present phase of the work follows largely from the results of the previous two phases [16, 17]. The most important conclusions obtained from that research were:

- The technology to reduce tracked vehicle noise does not exist and will require development.
- 2. Very careful control of testing parameters is necessary to accurately measure the incremental noise reductions obtained when evaluating potential noise reduction methods.
- At and below 20 mph, both idler and sprocket noise must be reduced to meet the noise reduction goals.
- 4. Above 20 mph, roadwheel noise also must be controlled in addition to idler and sprocket noise.
- Engine and power train noise is not significant compared to suspension induced noise.
- 6. Vehicle interior sound absorptive treatments are not practical.
- Making the idler and sprocket wheel rims more compliant is an effective noise reduction technique.
- 8. The best spring material for compliant idlers and sprockets appears to be either natural or synthetic base "natural" rubber. Steel springs would be difficult to engineer into the limited space available.
- 9. A number of highly resilient elastomers were evaluated as spring materials, but were found to have inferior mechanical or damping properties.
- 10. In a compliant idler wheel, axial as well as radial and tangential compliance need to be investigated.

- 11. A very compliant experimental idler wheel was designed, fabricated, and found to be rugged enough for extensive acoustical testing. Measurements showed that the compliant wheel is 10-12 dB(A) quieter than the standard idler wheel.
- 12. Local stiffening of the hull at the roadarm and idler locations provided no significant changes to the mechanical impedances and, therefore, no noise reduction potential.
- 13. A damping treatment applied to both sponsons provided appreciable sponson vibration reduction at 500 Hz and higher trequencies. This treatment also gave a modest vibration reduction of other hull plates, and noise reduction of approximately 0-2 dB(A).
- 14. To achieve appreciable noise reduction by means of hull plate damping, a promising technique is constrained layer damping. (This was later found to be much less effective than initially expected.)
- 15. The computerized simulation of track dynamics, while producing promising results, would require incremental refinement before it should be used in designing lower noise suspension components.

The reported program extends the previous work. The purposes are to evaluate and optimize the noise reduction of the previously developed experimental compliant idler, to demonstrate a practical reduced noise idler, to demonstrate the feasibility of a compliant sprocket, and to gain a better understanding of how the suspension vibration is conveyed throughout the hull and can be reduced by hull changes. This research was divided into five independent tasks, each of which could help reduce noise. These tasks were to:

- 1. Measure noise and durability characteristics of the previously developed experimental idler. Determine the importance of axial, radial, and tangential compliance on idler noise reduction.
- 2. Based upon the results above, design, fabricate and test a prototype quiet idler with a goal of A-weighted interior noise level of 95dB and a service life of greater than 2000 miles. Exterior noise reduction will also be assessed.
- 3. Design, fabricate, and test an experimental sprocket carrier based upon concepts developed for the compliant idler.
- 4. Determine the source of differences in interior and exterior noise levels between M113A1 and AIFV vehicles. Consideration would be given to individual noise sources, the method of attachment of the suspension components, and the coupling and radiation properties of the hulls.
- 5. Construct and exercise a finite element model to predict the vibrational mode shapes and dynamic response of the M113A1 vehicle.

The first task validated the concept of a compliant-rimmed idler, and determined those features which were most important for noise reduction. The second task showed that the concept could be used in a practical, production-feasible idler that has the durability required of tracked vehicle suspension components, and will still lead to reduced interior A-weighted noise level produced by the idler of 95 dB. The third task showed that the concept proven on the idler also could be adapted to a practical sprocket design which could transmit torque through the compliant elements to the track. The fourth and fifth tasks compared the hull structures of two vehicles of similar design, one of which is, on the average,  $5\ d3(A)$  quieter than the other. The fourth task approached this problem with an experimental comparison, while the fifth task addressed the problem from an analytical approach.

In this project, FMC Corporation, the producer of the M113A1 vehicle, was the prime contractor responsible for the design, test, fabrication, and overall management of the program. Mr. Thomas Norris of Consultants in Engineering Acoustics produced the idler concepts and preliminary design, and assisted in the final hardware design and testing. The experimental comparison of the hull dynamics of the AIFV and M113A1 vehicles was conducted by Dr. David Rennison of Boit Beranek and Newman Inc. of Canoga Park, California. The finite element modal analysis work was conducted by Dr. Rennison, with the computer modeling done by Dr. Kenneth Foster of Foster Engineering Company.

## 3. DISCUSSION OF TRACKED VEHICLE INTERIOR NOISE

### 3.1 General Discussion

Interior noise in tracked vehicles results from track interaction with the drive sprockets, idler wheels, and roadwheels. The engine and power train are secondary noise sources in most tracked vehicles. Some vehicles, such as the M60 tank and the Infantry Fighting Vehicle (IFV), have track support rollers which also may produce significant interior noise. The track-ground interaction was not found to be a significant source in any of the vehicles tested. Figure 3.1 is a schematic representation of tracked vehicle noise sources and vibration paths.

Noise in moving tracked vehicles results from vibration of the hull which is excited by suspension and engine-power train components. The interior noise levels at the driver and crew locations consist of direct and reverberant contributions. Due to space and other practical limitations, noise reduction in lightweight tracked vehicles can only be obtained by reducing hull vibration, rather than by installing barriers or absorbers. Consideration of "conventional" acoustic noise control barriers and absorbers showed that, because the entire hull radiates noise, the Aweighted noise goal of 100dB could not be met within practical weight, cost, durability, and size limits. Therefore, the noise control concepts addressed in this study were: (1) the reduction of vibration at the various sources, and (2) attentuation of vibration energy paths between sources and the hull.

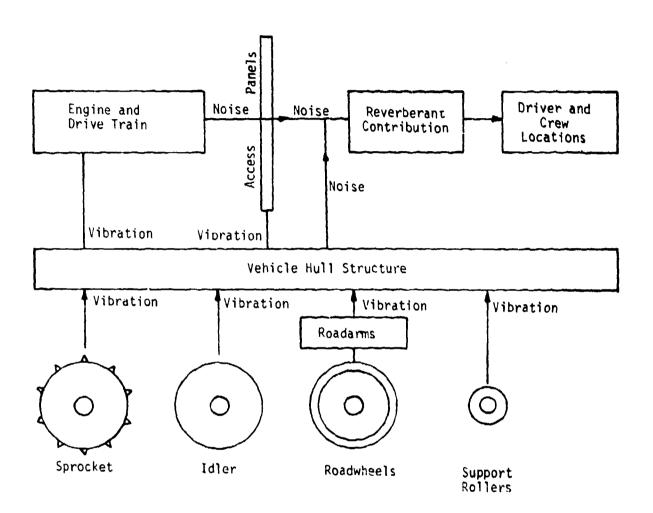


Figure 3.1 Schematic Diagram of Sources and Paths Responsible for Interior Noise in Tracked Vehicles.

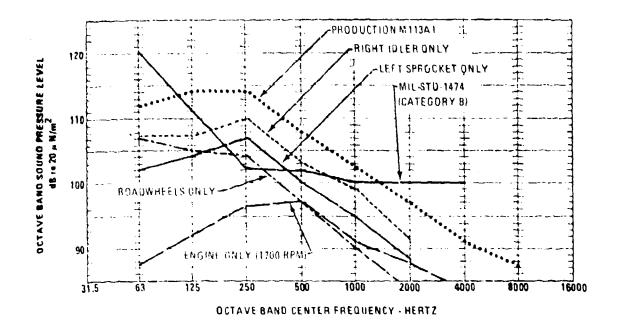


Figure 3.2 Noise Source Spectra at 15 mph at Center of Crew Compartment

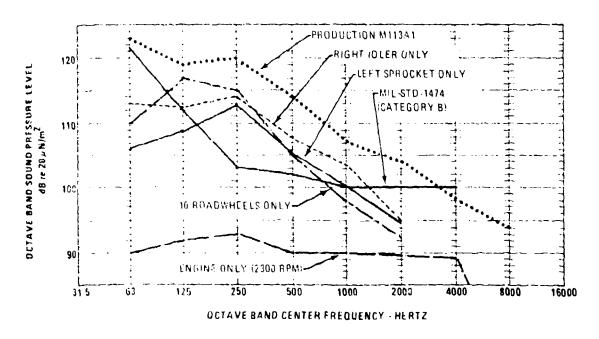


Figure 3.3 Noise Source Spectra at 25 mph at Center of Crew Compartment

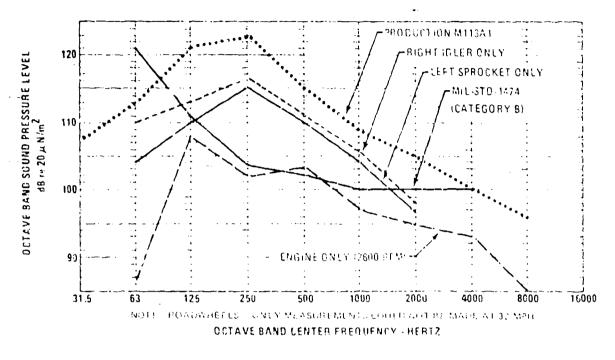


Figure 3.4 Noise Source Spectra at 32 mph at Center of Crew Compartment

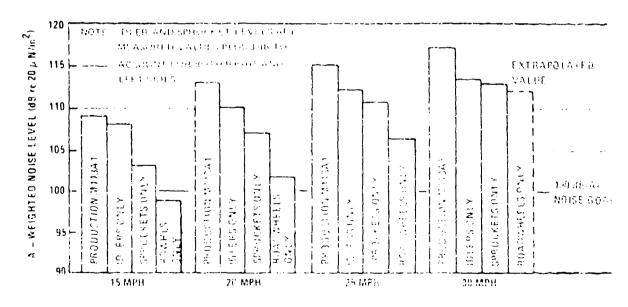


Figure 3.5 Track System Source Contributions to M113A1 Crew Area Noise Levels at Various Speeds.

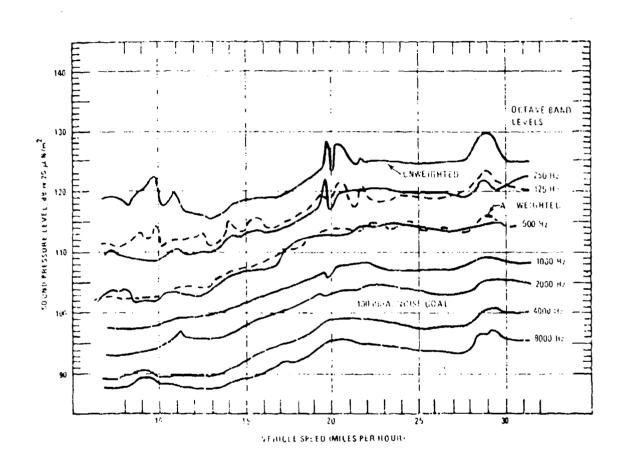


Figure 3.6 Speed Dependence of Production M113A1 Noise at the Crew Position Operating on Paved Track.

The basic phenomena responsible for tracked vehicle hull vibration at typical operating speeds are tension changes due to the geometry of track engagement with the idler and sprocket wheels, and forces resulting from impacts between track shoes and the idler and sprocket wheels. Both of these phenomena occur at track-laying rate. A further discussion of these phenomena appears in Reference [16].

#### 3.2 M113A1 Interior Noise Levels

When under way, the airborne noise levels in both the crew area and driver space on the M113A1 armored personnel carrier exceed comfort, communication, and hearing conservation standards.

for example, at 30 miles per hour the A-weighted noise level near the driver's head location is 117 dB. At the same speed, the noise level is 124 dB in the 250 Hz octave band. These levels are, respectively, 17 and 21 dB above those noise levels specified as acceptable in MIL-STD-1474B, Category B, which is the maximum allowable level for systems requiring electrically-aided communication via an attenuating helmes or headset.

The octave band spectra for 15, 25 and 32 mph in the crew compartment are presented in Figures 3.2, 3.3, and 3.4. The noise levels of the production M113Al exceed the specification goal by 12 to 19 dB at 250 Hz, depending on vehicle speed.

The relative noise contributions of the idlers, sprockets, and roadwheels are presented in Figure 3.5. The dependence on speed of both the Aweighted noise level and octave band noise levels is presented in Figure 3.6. A more complete discussion of these noise source levels appears in Reference [16].

# 4. EXPERIMENTAL COMPARISON OF THE HULL DYNAMICS OF THE AIFV AND MILIAL VILLEURS

#### 4.1 Conceptual Approach

It has been observed that the A-weighted noise levels inside certain AIFV vehicles are on the average 5 dB lower than inside the similar M113A1 vehicles. The primary structural differences between these two vehicles of almost identical size are the upper hull shape and the idler attachment details, the track and suspension system being essentially the same for the two vehicles. An excellent opportunity was therefore available to explore the potential for interior noise reduction as a function of these hull design differences.

in an effort to develop an empirical understanding of the importance of these subtle structural differences, two studies were undertaken to examine energy flow within both vehicles. The first investigated noise and vibration characteristics by using the concepts of statistical energy analysis and the second contrasted the attachment point transfer functions of the vehicles' suspension systems. The results of these analyses were then used to guide the development of an analytical model, which is to be used to predict the effects of practical structural hull modifications on the vehicle interior noise levels.

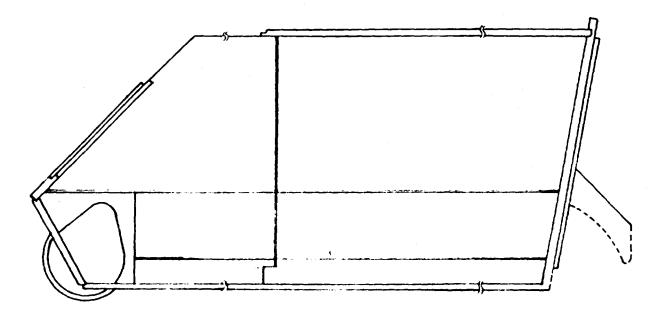
## 4.2 Vehicle Structural Characteristics

The AIFV evolved from the baseline M113 concept insofar as the suspension, track, and lower structure are almost identical for the two classes of vehicles; in fact, many of the structural components are interchangeable. Various differences exist, some major and others rather subtle; this discussion will concentrate on these differences. Figures 4.1 to 4.6 present alternative views of the two hulls selected to highlight the major structural elements expected to have the greatest influence on the noise differences between the two vehicles. Emphasis has been placed on the vehicles' rear sections and the idler attachment areas. In each figure the M113A1 hull is used as the baseline and the A1FV appears on the overlay.

Figure 4.1 shows a section view looking from the vehicles' left sides. The largest differences at the vehicle front are the shallower slope of the AIFV nose and its relatively thinner hull thickness. The use of bolt-on armor protection mounted over buoyancy foam equalizes the hull surface density, but reduces 'panel' bending riginity. The final drive mounting system, flooring configuration, box beam lower side plate, and sponson details appear the same for the two vehicles. Roadarms are mounted in the same positions in the box beams.

Major wiferences occur in the vehicle top surfaces and rear configura-The AIFV has provision for a turnet (mass about 1200 kg) and its rear half is composed of more and smaller plate elements, forming a stiffer hull in the circumferential direction (see Figure 4.2 for a rear Figure 4.3 contrasts the vehicle cross sections in the 'turnet' plane: the added turnet mass and the more rigid hull cross section might be expected to reduce the power accepting characteristics of the hull and thereby reduce the inflow of vibrational energy, at least at low frequen-A comparison of the details of the horizontal section toward the rear of the hull and at a plane above the sponsons is shown in Figure The fuel tanks are relocated from an inhoard left position on the 4.4. to a rear-mounted overhanging position on the AIFV (see Figure M113A1 A considerable difference in hull vertical inertance could result at the idler attachment position. In general, the thicknesses of the 'upper side' plates on the AIEV are some 30% less than on the M113A1, due to the use of space-laminate boit-on armor. Ramp details for the two vehicles are similar.

Idler plate details are compared in figures 4.5 and 4.6. The former compares the configuration of left and right idler plate shapes for the



M113A1, FMC DWG 10932750

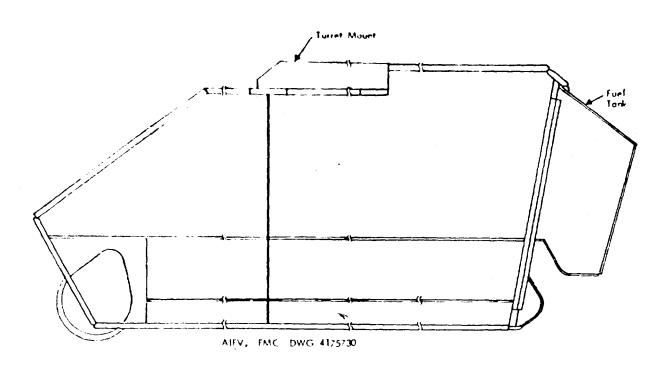
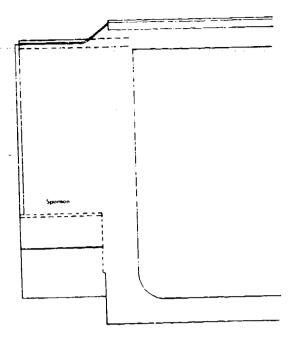


Figure 4.1 Comparison of Hull Vertical Sections, Taken Along Vehicle Length



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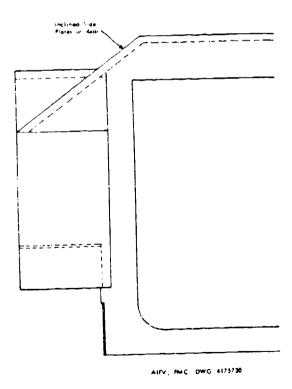
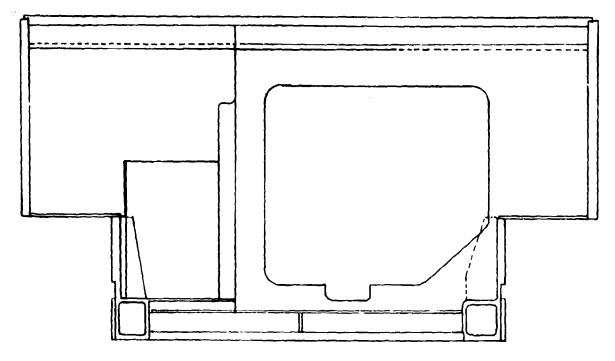


Figure 4.2 Comparison of AIFV/Mil3Ai Hull Details - Rear View



M113A1, FMC DWG 10932750

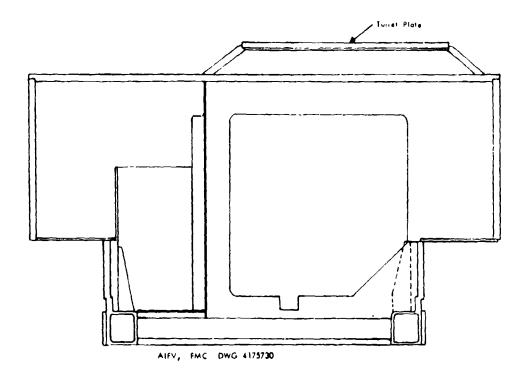
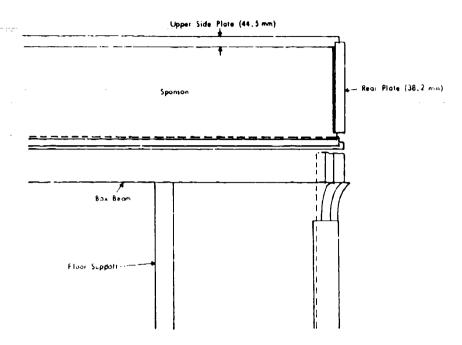


Figure 4.3 Hull Section Views, Looking Forward



MITJAT, IMC DWG 10932750

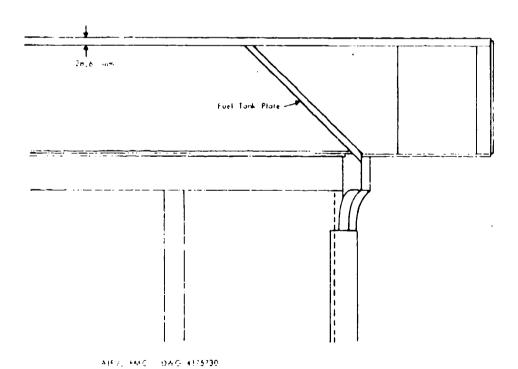
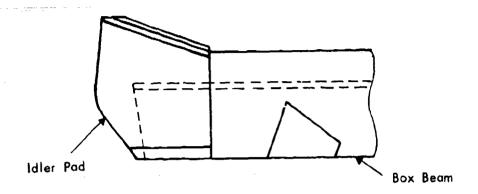
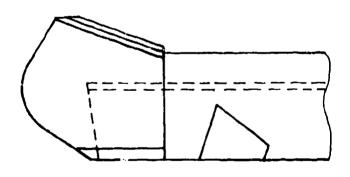


Figure 4.4 Comparison of Horizontal Sections of Vehicles, Above Sponson

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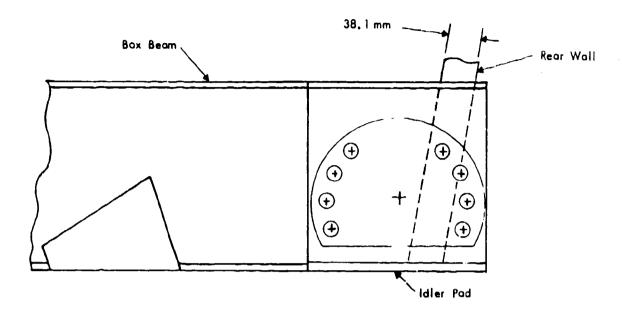


Left Idler Pad (Viewed from Right FMC DWG 4169492)

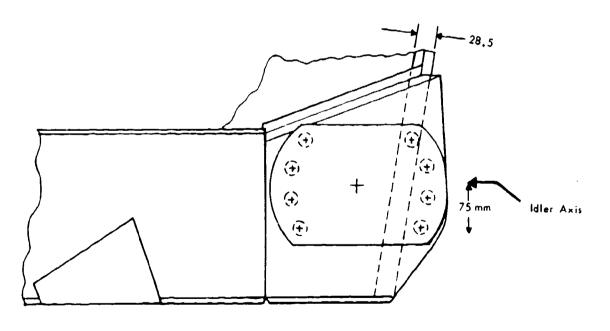


Right Idler Pad (FMC DWG 4169490)

Figure 4.5 Comparison of Left and Right Idler Pads for Alfv



M113A1, FMC DWG 10932751



AIFV, FMC DWG 4179145

Figure 4.6 Comparison of Left Idler Pads for AIFV and M113

AIFV; the differences suggest the likelihood of asymmetries in the noise transmission characteristics of the idler attachments. Similar differences in longitudinal position of left and right idlers occur on the M113A1 and are to allow for fitting of the torsion bars from left and right sides; the left track has one more shoe than the right track. Figure 4.6 shows the differences in idler attachment pad location, with regard to vertical positioning of the idler spindle relative to the boxbeam: the idler spindle on the AIFV is located some 64mm higher than on the M113A1 (on each side of the vehicle).

Certain directions for the comparison of the two classes of vehicles become clear from this brief comparison. Experimentally, it would be of interest to explore, in addition to absolute differences between the two vehicles, the potential asymmetries in hull dynamic response and attachment point inertance which may occur between left and right sides of each vehicle, and whether, for the AIFV, these are influenced by the turret mass. On the other hand, the influences of alternative idler locations, of fuel tank/rear plate configuration, and of the details of changes in hull cross section are more practically studied analytically with the finite-element model of the hull structure. This work is described later in the report. The work reported below describes the experiments carried out and the results of the various comparisons made of the two vehicles.

# 4.3 Power Flow Analysis

# 4.3.1 Review of Concepts

Statistical energy analysis (SEA) provides a convenient means of describing the flow of vibrational and acoustic power between connected systems, in terms of gross parameters such as the energy levels, modal densities, and overall physical properties of the connected structures and/or acoustic spaces involved. A review of the concepts involved can be found in references [16] and [17]; a summary of relevant equations, using metric units, is presented below.

The vibratory power dissipated in a panel structure  $\mathbf{W}_{d}$  (in watts) is given by

$$W_{d} = \omega \eta \langle v^{2} \rangle m, \qquad (1)$$

where

 $\omega$  (=2 $\pi$ f) is the circular frequency (radians/s),

n is the total structural loss factor (that is, the sum of the acoustic radiation and structural dissipation components),

 $\langle v^2 \rangle$  is the space-average mean-square velocity  $(m/s)^2$ ,

 $\langle a^2 \rangle$  is the space-average mean-square acceleration  $(m/s^2)^2$  and

m is the panel mass (kg).

Expressed in engineering units and in terms of space-average mean-square accelerations, this equation becomes

 $L_{wd}$  (dB re  $10^{-12}$  watts) = AL (dB re 1 g) + 10 log  $\frac{r_{cm}}{f}$  + 131.8 (2)

where

 $1 \text{ g} = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$  and AL is the acceleration level, calculated as AL=10 log [ $\langle a^2 \rangle / (1 \text{ g})^2 \rceil$ 

The power radiated from a plate W<sub>r</sub> (in watts) is calculated from measured plate acceleration levels according to

$$W_{r} = S_{c} c_{c} \langle a^{2} \rangle / \langle a^{2} \rangle$$
 (3)

where

S is the panel surface area  $(m^2)$ ,

 $\rho c$  is the characteristic impedance of the acoustic medium (for air,  $\rho c$  is about 415 mks rayls, where mks rayls = kg/m²/s), and  $\sigma$  is the (nondimensional) radiation efficiency of the plate.

is a function of the plate critical frequency  $f_{\zeta}$ , the plate area, and the length of attached stiffeners.  $f_{\zeta}$  is calculated as 12600/h, where h is the plate thickness in mm. In engineering form, equation (3) becomes

$$L_{wr}$$
 (dB re 1 pW)= AL (dB re 1 g) + 10 log  $\sigma$  + 10 log (S/f<sup>2</sup>) + 150.0 (4)

The net acoustic power flow into the vehicle interior is balanced by that absorbed on the vehicle bounding surfaces and by its occupants,  $W_{abs}$  (in watts). For a reverberant acoustic space, with air as the acoustic medium this balance is given as

$$L_{wr} = W_{abs} = \langle p_j^2 \rangle V \omega n_j / \rho c^2$$
 (5)

where

 $\langle p_j^2 \rangle$  is the space-averaged mean-square interior acoustic pressure  $(Pa^2)$ , V is the interior volume  $(m^3)$ , and V is the interior acoustic loss factor

Equation (5) may be expressed in engineering terms by

$$L_{wa}$$
 (dB re 1 pW) =  $L_{p}$  (dB re 20PPa) + 10 log (Vf $\eta_{i}$ ) - 17.5 (6)

where the interior speed of sound is taken as 343 m/s. It is noted that the interior acoustic loss factor relates directly to the interior reverberation time  $T_{60}$  as  $\eta_i$  =2.2/( $T_{60}f$ ). Equations (2), (4), and (6) describe the balance of structural and acoustic energy levels within the vehicles: these may be calculated from measurements of acceleration levels and structural loss factors, measurements of the interior noise levels and acoustic loss factors, and from the system geometry.

In the following sections, these quantities measured on the AIFV vehicle are contrasted with existing data for the M113A1 vehicle presented in Reference [17]. M113A1 data were recorded on vehicle number SJ136, at 32 km/hr (20 mph) during normal underway paved track operation. AIFV numbers NSJ0005 and NSJ0002 were used for tests; underway data at a range of track speeds were recorded and analyzed for both. Emphasis here is placed on the NSJ0005 vehicle, as this vehicle is the quieter of the two, although limited NSJ0002 data is presented to allow comparisons between these two vehicles to be made. Comparisons between vehicles are made at 32 km/hr (20 mph).

### 4.3.2 Measured Results

#### 4.3.2.1 Hull Vibration Levels

Vibration levels were measured at about 40 locations on those interior radiating surfaces of the AIFV expected to determine the interior acoustic power flow. Table 4.1 presents space-averaged mean-square acceleration levels for the major radiating interior panels. The analysis was carried out in one-third octave bands, but data is presented in octave bands, and in general, three measurement locations were used to calculate the average for each panel. The standard deviation in acceleration level between different locations on the same panel was, in general, less than 1 dB at 250 Hz and less than 0.5 dB at 1000 Hz.

The AIFV vibration levels on the left-hand hull panels are generally 3 to 5 dB greater than those on the corresponding right-hand panels, as shown in Figure 4.7(a) for the sponsons and upper side plates. This is in contrast to MII3A1 data which shows the right-hand panel vibration levels to be marginally greater than those on the left-hand side (Figure 4.7 (b)). Similar but weaker trends were observed on the NSJ0002 vehicle as for the NSJ0005 vehicle.

ligures 4.8(a) and 4.8(b) compare the underway acceleration levels on similar hull surfaces of the AIFV and M113A1 tracked vehicles: almost universally, the AIFV levels are 7 to 10 dB lower than those on the M113A1 hull.

It is clear from these data that the suspension attachment point response and the force-to-noise transfer functions should be examined for asymmetries between left and right sides of the vehicle.

### 4.3.2.2 Interior Noise Levels

The dependence on forward speed of the A-weighted interior sound levels for the AIFV vehicles tested is presented in Figure 4.9. The mean sound levels and the associated lolimits are shown for the NSJ0005 vehicle and found to plateau to a maximum level of 110 dB(A) as forward speed increases above 40 km/hr (25 mph). This is in contrast to data measured for two other vehicles, NSJ0002 and NSJ143, in which the sound level increases with increasing speed above 30 km/hr.

TABLE 4.1

SPACE - AVERAGED MEAN SQUARE ACCELERATION LEVEL, DB RE 1 G FOR THE AIFV NSJ0005 AT 32 KM/HR (20 MPH).

		THICK		Octave Band Center Frequency - Hz						
PANEL	AREA (m2)	NESS (mm)	63	125	250	500	l k	?k	₹ <u>*</u>	8k
Bottom Plate	4.1	28.1	-1.6	-1.4	-2.2	-5,0	-5.8	-5.3	-7.2	-16.1
Floor Plates	4.1	5.0	-0.8	3,4	0.4	0.2	2.2	-4.3	-5.6	-13.8
Upper Side Plate: Left Right	3.4	28.1				-6.9 -5.6	-6.8	-7.1 -9.4		
Inclined Side Pla Left Right	te: 1.4	38.1					-7.3 -10.2			
Sponson: Left Right	2.0	12.5					2.8 -2.6			-3.9 -9.6
Lower Side Plate: Left Right	1.1	31.8					-3.8 -4.9			
Engine Access Panel	1.0	6.0	-1.9	-2.3	-0.6	<b>-2.</b> 5	-1.4	-1.2	-4.1	-13.4
Ramp	2.3	38.1	-9.9	-8.8	-11.9	-11.5	-12.2	-20.2	-20.6	-30.5
Top Plate	9.6	38.1	~5,5	-2.1	-7.1	<b>-</b> 7 <b>.</b> 9	-7.5	-14.9	-14.3	-23.8
Cango Hatch	1.0	3×.1	2,3	-5.5	-6.4	<b>-</b> 7.7	<b>-</b> 8.5	-8.2	-9.1	-11.6

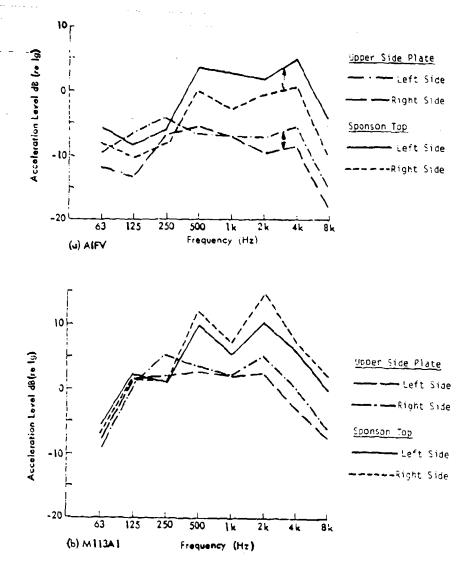


Figure 4.7 Comparison of Hull Acceleration Levels on Left and Right Hand Sides of Tracked Vehicles at 32 km/h (20 mph) (a) AIFY #SJ0005, (b) M113A1 (on blocks (16)).

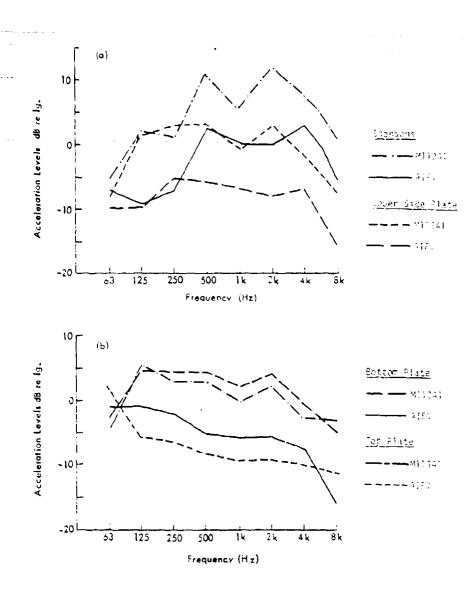


Figure 4.8 Comparison of Acceleration Levels on Similar Hull Surfaces on AIFV and M113Al Tracked Vehicles Underway at 32 km/h (20 mph).

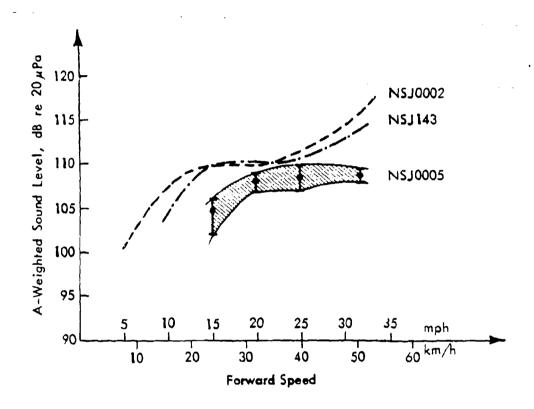


Figure 4.9 Dependence of A-Weighted Interior Sound Level on Vehicle Speed for the Vehicles Tested.

Figure 4.10 shows interior sound level spectra for the under way AIFV vehicles tested at a forward speed of 32 km/h (20 mph). Also shown is the spectrum of the M113A1 sound level, taken from Figure 6 of [16]. The interior spectrum levels for the AIFV are generally 5 dB lower than those in M113Al vehicle, the differences for AIFV NSJ0005 being only marginally less than the differences in hull panel acceleration levels presented in Figure 4.8. Measured octave band spectra of the AIFV interior sound levels, showing the dependence on vehicle forward speed, are given in Figures 4.11 and 4.12 for vehicles NSJ0005 and NSJ0002, respectively: the speed characteristics of the two vehicles are quite different, reflecting slight differences in construction detail, tolerances, or track condition. The differences in interior sound levels between the two AIFV vehicles compare closely with the differences in hull panel acceleration levels. For example, at those forward speeds where NSJ0002 sound levels exceed the NSJ0005 levels, NSJ0002 acceleration levels exceed the NSJ0005 acceleration levels by similar amounts.

### 4.3.2.3 Hull Radiation Efficiencies

While the structural characteristics of the lower section of the AIFV and M113A1 vehicles are essentially the same in terms of their radiation properties, the upper portions of the AIFV are smaller in area and thinner than for the M113A1, with resulting differences in radiation efficiencies. Figure 4.13 compares the calculated radiation efficiencies for various AIFV hull elements with those for the M113A1 hull taken from Reference [17]. The AIFV appears to have slightly greater radiation efficiencies, but the differences are generally less than 3 dB. This 3 dB, when subtracted from the 7 to 10 dB difference in acceleration levels between AIFV and M113A1 vehicles, matches closely the differences in interior sound level shown in Figure 4.10 to exist between the two vehicles.

#### 4.3.2.4 Structural and Acoustic Loss Factor Data

Loss factor information for the hull and interior space is used to determine the energy dissipation occurring in the two systems. Structural decay measurements were made using an impulse technique, while acoustic decays involved interrupting a steady-state interior acoustic signal and observing the decay rate.

Structural loss factors for AIFV and M113A1 vehicles are presented in Figures 4.14 and 4.15. Data were measured on the larger hull surfaces, but there appears little significant difference between the different locations. Further there are no significant differences between the loss factors of the two vehicles, being typical of welded built-up aluminum or steel structures. The bolt-on armor plating does not appear to provide any significant hull damping because the foam core is not sufficiently stiff to resist deformation. The calculated radiation loss factor for the AIFV roof is shown in Figure 4.14,  $\left( n_{rad} = 2\rho c S \sigma / \omega m \right)$ : this curve, which is representative of all the

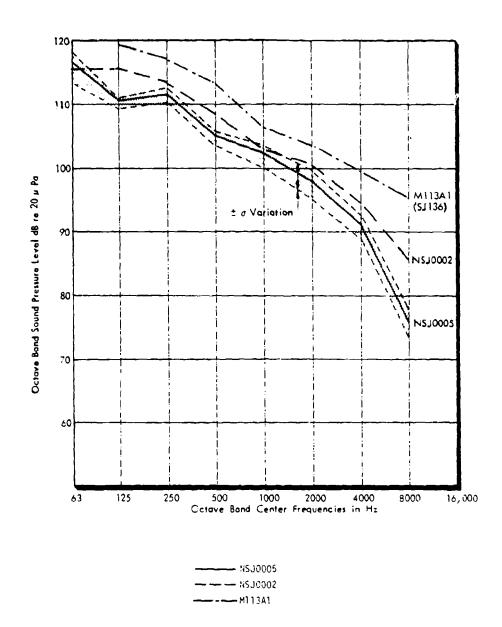


Figure 4.10 Crew Position Interior Sound Level Spectra for Underway AIFV Vehicles at 32 km/h (20 mph).

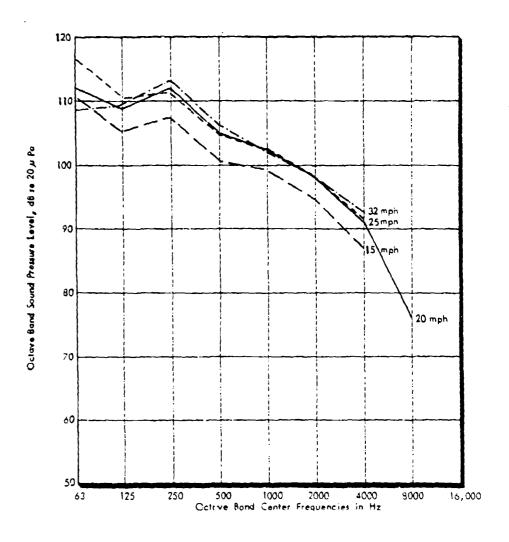


Figure 4.11 Interior Sound Level Spectra, AIFV NSF0005, Showing the Effect of Forward Speed.

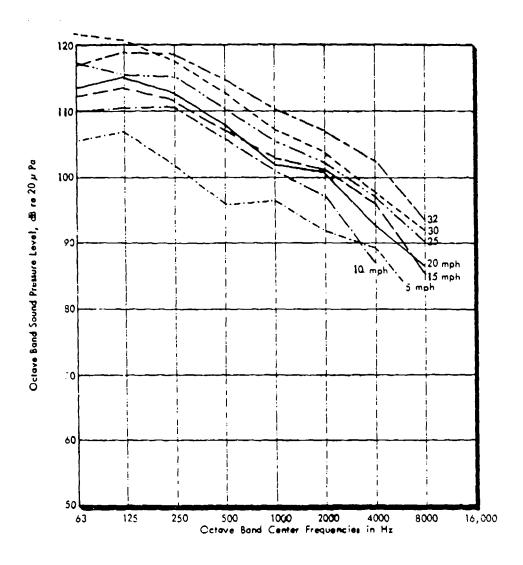
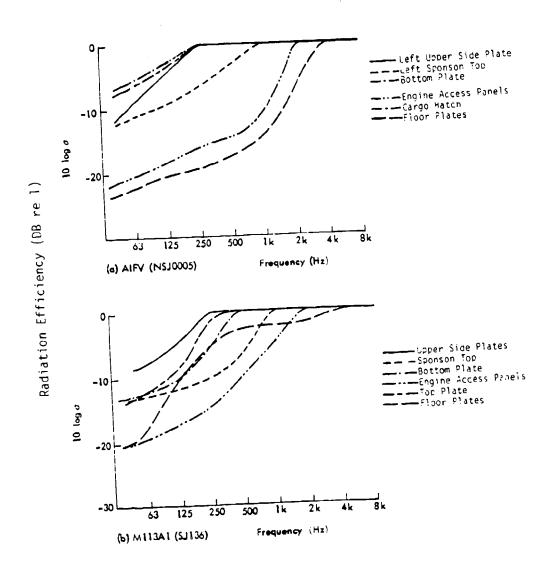


Figure 4.12 Effect of Forward Speed on Interior Sound Level Spectra for AIFV NSJ0002.



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Figure 4.13 Calcualted Radiation Efficiencies for Typical Hull Panels.

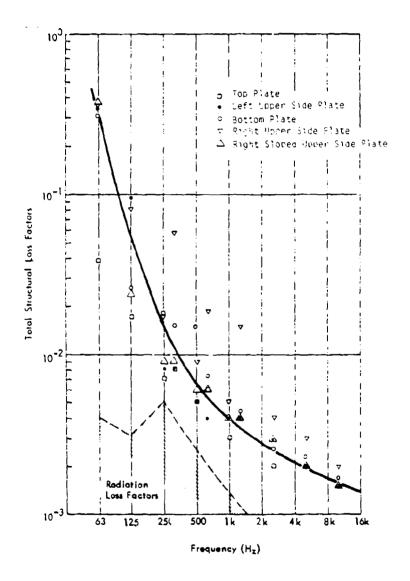


Figure 4.14 Structural Loss Factor Data AIFV (NSJ0005).

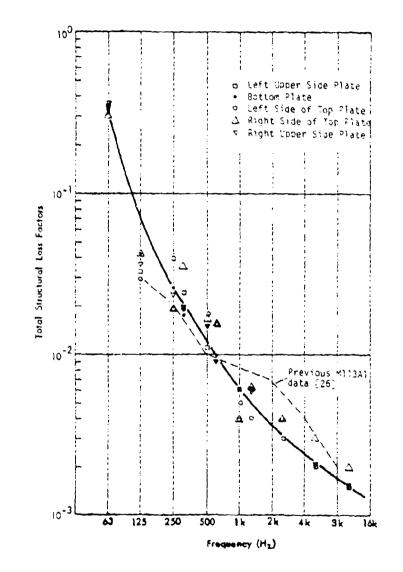


Figure 4.15 Structural Loss Factor Data M113A1 (57136).

radiating surfaces, lies well below the hull total loss factor curves suggesting that internal losses dominate the energy dissipation process. As noted previously [26] there appears considerable scope for increasing the hull total loss factors, particularly at frequencies above 125 Hz. Whether this is practical below 500 Hz in view of the influence of long wavelength vibration modes [1], remains to be seen.

Acoustic loss factors of the interior space are presented in Table 4.2, together with the averaged hull loss factors. Good similarity between previous acoustic reverberation times and present data was found.

#### 4.3.2.5 Power Flow Calculations

Calculations for the underway AIFV (NSJ0005) of the power dissipated in the hull structure and the power dissipated by radiation from hull panels into the hull interior, and calculations of the interior acoustic power level absorbed in the hull, were made following equations (1) through (6). The interior acoustic dissipated power levels were calculated from the measured octave-band noise levels (Figure 4.10) and the

TABLE 4.2

LOSS FACTOR DATA FOR HULL STRUCTURE AND INTERIOR ACOUSTIC VOLUME FOR THE AIFV VEHICLE

Octave Band Center Frequency (Hz)	Hull Loss Factor	Interior Volume Loss Factor		
63	0.30	0.065		
125	0.055	0.037		
250	0.015	0.021		
500	0.0065	0.012		
1k	0.0040	0.0074		
2k	0.0028	0.0037		
۵k	0.0022	0.0025		
3k	0.0016	0.0014		

loss factor data in Table 4.2. Hull dissipated and radiated power levels for individual panels were calculated from averaged panel octave-band acceleration measurements (Table 1.1), hull loss factors (Figure 4.14) and calculated radiation efficiencies (Figure 4.13(a)).

The power balance results are presented in Figure 4.16 for 32 km/hr (20 mph) forward speed. Also shown are the baseline interior acoustic power levels for the M113A1 vehicle [26]. The acoustic power radiated from the hull surfaces (Figure 4.16, curve 3) closely matches the acoustic power level dissipated (i.e., absorbed) within the hull interior space (curve 2), as was found for the M113A1 vehicle [17]. The hull dissipated power due to structural damping mechanisms (Figure 4.16, curve 1)

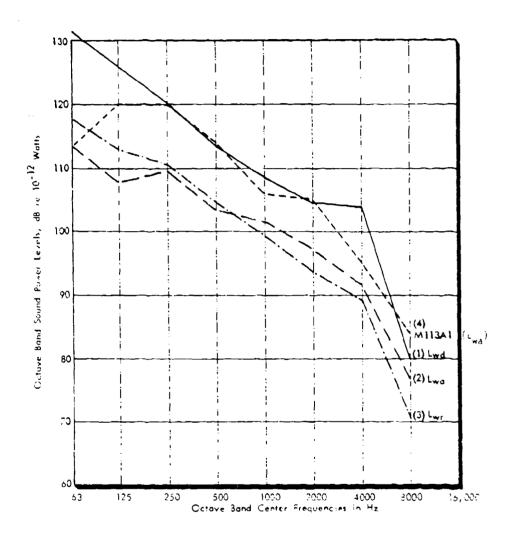


Figure 4.16 Comparison of Hull Dissipated ( $L_{\rm Wd}$ ), Hull Radiated ( $L_{\rm Wr}$ ), and Acoustic Dissipated ( $L_{\rm Wa}$ ) Power Levels; AIFV (NSJ0005) at 32 km/hr (20 mph), Test Track Data.

exceeds by up to 10 dB the power dissipated by radiation from the hull surfaces, even allowing for radiation from the vehicle exterior. The acoustic disipated power levels for the M113A1 (Figure 4.16, curve 4) taken from [17], are up to 10 dB greater than those presently measured on the AIFV NS30005 under similar test conditions (curve 2), consistent with the differences in interior noise level spectra.

Figure 4.17 shows the calculated major contributors to the hull radiated power levels for the AIFV at 32 km/hr (20 mph). The bottom plate is clearly the dominant source at frequencies less than 500 Hz, and the panel elements on the left side of the vehicle contribute significantly greater power than those on the right side. Figure 4.17b shows the calculated major contributors to the hull radiated power levels for the M113A1 at 32 km/hr (20 mph) for comparison with the AIFV. The contributions from the top panel, upper side panels and lower side panels (both left and right combined) are similar and to avoid confusion are represented by a single curve. The data used for the curves are from reference [17], where data for the left and right sides have been combined and only the totals presented. Thus, no distinction is made as to which side radiates more power. For the M113Al vehicle, Figure 4.17b shows that the sides and top are the most important contributors. The AIFV top plate is a relatively weak contributor, in contrast to the situation for the M113A1. The smaller-element, stiffer cross-section of the AIFV hull appears to block the flow of vibrational energy from attachment point to the vehicle top surface.

As for the M113A1, however, barriers would not be a practical form of noise control due to the relatively large radiating areas.

#### 4.3.3 Discussion

The major observations to be made from these measurements and calculations are:

- 1. The AlfV hull vibration levels, particularly in the top plate, are significantly lower than in the M113A1 vehicle during underway track operation. These differences are similar to the differences in interior sound levels.
- 2. The major radiating null elements are the bottom plate and the upper side plates at low frequencies, with the sponsors becoming dominant at frequencies above their fundamental spanwise resonance. This is in contrast with the M113Al where the top plate controlled the interior sound levels.
- 3. Statistical Energy Analysis provides a useful framework for understancing the power flow between structure and interior space even at frequencies as low as 250 Hz.

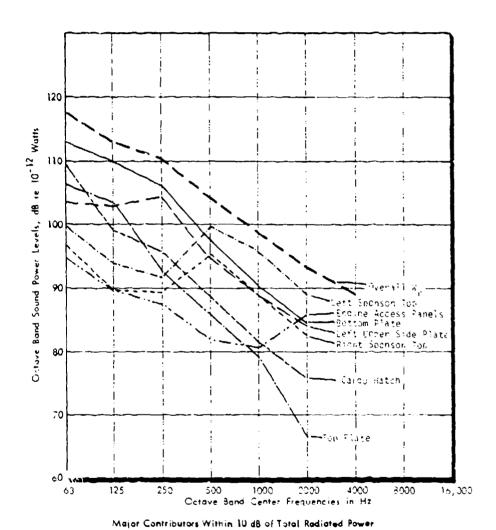


Figure 4.17a Major Contributors to the Hull Radiated Power Levels, AIFV (NSJ0005) at 32 km/H (20 mph) Test Track Data.

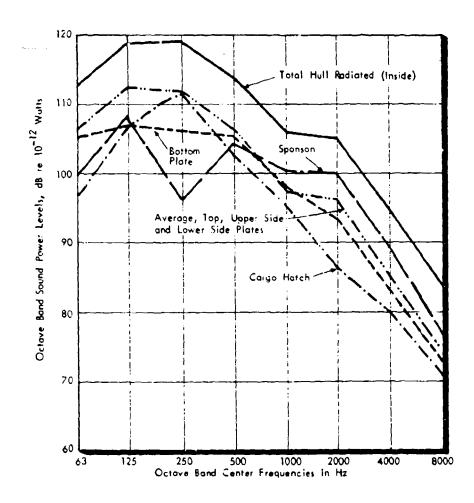


Figure 4.17b Major Contributors to the Hull Radiated Power Levels, M113A1 Vehicle at 32 km/h (20 mph) Supported on Jackstands

Previous experiments showed that surface damping treatments are unlikely to significantly reduce interior sound levels, even though the response of the hull is primarily resonant. This is mainly due to the difficulty in damping modes with a long structural wavelength, which are important contributors to the overall structural response and acoustic radiation.

Composite structures of the same mass and bending stiffness (for strength purposes), and consequently having the same resonance frequency distribution, will be no more amenable to damping than the existing plate configuration: this is because the wavelength of the structural modes will be unchanged as a function of frequency. Composite structures of the same mass but lower stiffness (ignoring strength considerations) will have a higher modal density, but will be more amenable to structural damping techniques. It is believed that these two factors will offset each other, since the vehicle's resonant response is proportional to the modal density (which will increase) and inversely proportional to the structural loss factor (which will increase). In fact, preliminary analysis indicates that the vehicle response will increase, rather than decrease as required. While composite structures involving laminated damping layers may provide an advantage, an analysis of the potential benefits as a function of structural stiffness, mass, and loss factor (which itself depends on these two parameters) should be developed to guide any empirical study. It is recommended that such studies be undertaken before any experimental work is considered.

# 4.4 Hull Attachment Point Transfer Function Analysis

# 4.4.1 General

Attachment point noise-to-force transfer functions (T.F.'s) and inertances were measured on AIFV and M113Al vehicles for various configurations in an attempt to determine the influence of the differences in hull construction on the power accepting capability of the two hulls. The measured data are presented and discussed below. The instrumentation system used is shown in Figure 4.18. Inertance is defined as the transfer function between acceleration output and force input, where the acceleration is measured at the point of application of the force.

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{a(j\omega)}{F(j\omega)} = \frac{|a|e^{j\alpha}}{|F|e^{j\beta}} = \frac{|a|}{|F|} e^{j(\alpha-\beta)}$$

so that  $|H(j\omega)| = \frac{|a|}{|F|}$  is the inertance magnitude and

 $\phi(j\omega) = (\alpha-\beta)$  is the inertance phase angle.

# 4.4.2 Noise-to-Force Transfer Functions

Differences between left- and right-side noise-to-force T.F.'s at the idler spindle in both vertical and horizontal directions were measured on the AIFV NSJ0005 and M113A1 SJ136 vehicles: the reduced data are

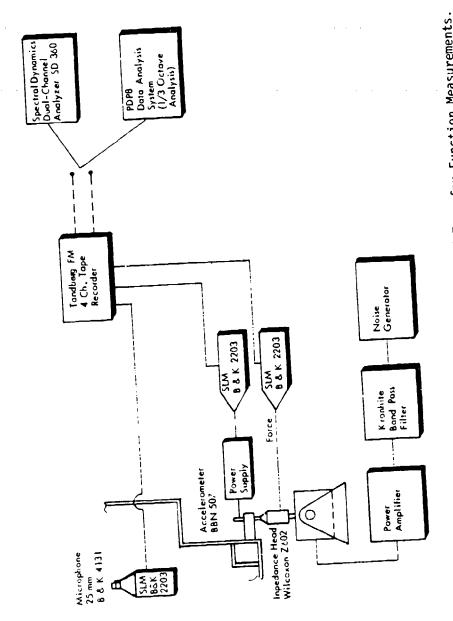


Figure 4.18 Instrumentation for Hull Inertance and Transfer Function Measurements.

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shown in Figures 4.19 to 4.21. Figure 4.19 (a) shows left- and right-side noise-to-force T.F.'s for horizontal excitation of the idler spindle. The right-side T.F. is marginally higher than the left-side in the mid-frequency range, in comparison to the situation for the M113A1 hull (Figure 4.19 (b)), where differences of up to 6 dB in T.F. occur between 400 Hz and 1 kHz. Comparison of the average of left- and right-side horizontal data for the two hulls, as in Figure 4.21, shows that the noise-to-force T.F. for M113A1 hull exceeds that for the AIFV by 3 dB over most of the frequency range from 100 Hz to 1 kHz. (These trends are also reflected in the left/right AIFV/M113A1 horizontal inertance measurements as seen in Figures 4.22 and 4.23 in Section 4.4.3).

Data for vertical excitation of the idler spindles are presented in Figures 4.20 and 4.21. The right-side T.F. for the AIFV exceeds that for the left side by a value of about 3 dB over the whole frequency range (Figure 4.20(a)) in contrast to the case for the M113A1 hull (Figure 4.20(b)) where the left and right T.F.'s are similar. These are in contrast to the acceleration level differences between left and right sides of the AIFV vehicle shown in Figure 4.7(a). Left/right averaged data for the two hulls are compared in Figure 4.21(a), where the absolute differences in T.F. magnitude are seen to be about 10 dB at about 125 Hz decreasing to 1 to 2 dB at 1 kHz. (Again, these differences are in general agreement with those found in inertance measurement to be presented in Section 4.4.3).

We note that the present T.F.'s for the M113A1 hull are in good agreement with those previously presented in [16]. Figure 35, which involved a similar measurement configuration.

### 4.4.3 Hull Inertance Transfer Functions

#### 4.4.3.1 Left/Right Asymmetries - AIFV

Left- and right-side idler inertance measurements, both magnitude  $(H_2)$  and phase (2), for horizontal and vertical excitation of the AIFV hull, with turnet mounted on vehicle, are presented in Figures 4.22 and 4.23. In both directions, considerable asymmetry between left and right sides of the AIFV null idler inertances exist, although this is strongest in the vertical direction and in the region of 1 kHz. At low frequencies, the horizontal hull inertances increase smoothly at about 12 dB per doubling of frequency, and the phase angle between acceleration and force is  $180^\circ$ , characteristic of a stiffness-controlled system. As frequency increases, hull resonances produce fluctuations in inertance magnitude and decreases in phase angle. In the vertical direction, the inertance magnitude fluctuates strongly at low frequency about the smooth horizontal inertance function; correspondingly strong variations in phase angle occur. Hull resonances are apparently more easily driven by a vertical idler force than by one in the horizontal direction. This is more clearly seen in Figure 4.24 where horizontal and vertical inertances are compared over the frequency range up to 200 Hz.

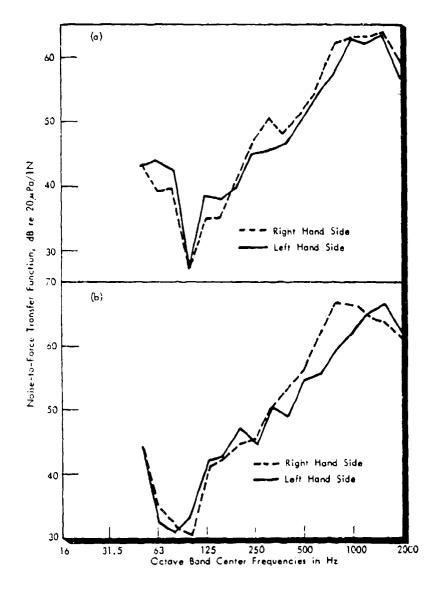
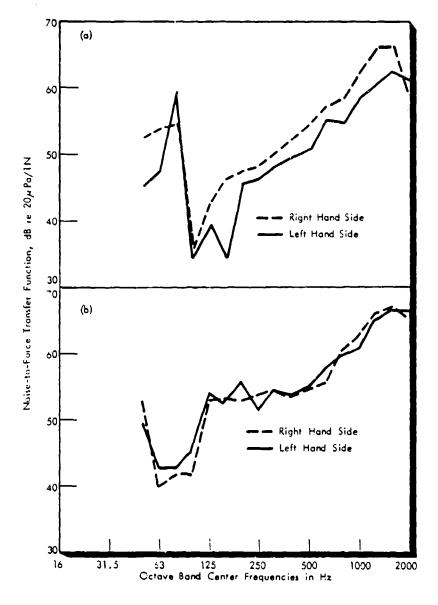


Figure 4.19 Noise-to-Force Transfer Functions for Horizontal Excitation of Idler Spindle (a) AIFV (b) M113A1.



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Figure 4.20 Noise-to-Force Transfer Function for Vertical Excitation of Idler Spindle (a) AIFV (b) M113A1.

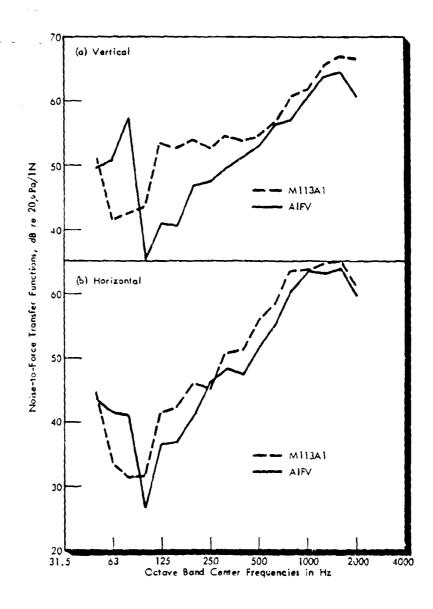
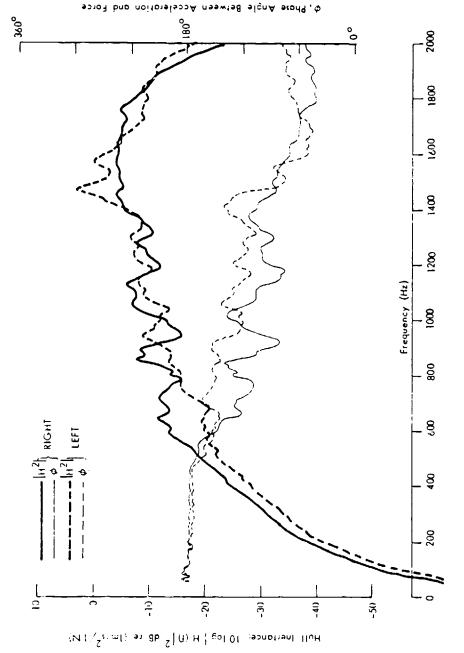


Figure 4.21 Noise-to-Force Transfer Functions for (a) Vertical and (b) Horizontal Excitation of Idler Spindles. (Average of Left and Right Idlers Presented: 50N Pink Noise Force Input).



Comparison of Left and Right Side Horizontal Inertances on AIFV Idler Spindles (Turret on Vehicle). Figure 4.22

4. Phase Angle Between Acceleration and Force

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Hull Inertance 10 top 1 H (0)  $^{12}$  dB is (14 m  $^{5}$  / M)

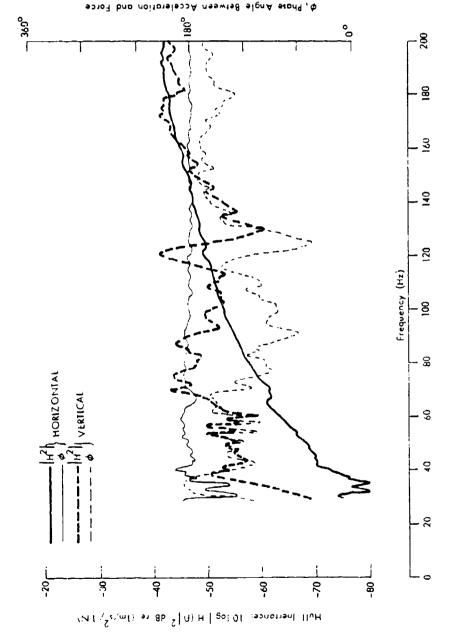


Figure 4.24 Comparison of Horizontal and Vertical Left Idler Spindle Inertances on AIFV Vehicle (Turret and Vehicle).

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Similar results are observed at the final drive attachment points. Figures 4.25 and 4.26 show the horizontal and vertical inertances respectively. Only small inertance differences between left and right sides exist in the horizontal direction, but in the vertical direction stronger asymmetries (up to 8 dB) occur. Of greater importance is the 5 to 8 dB difference between vertical and horizontal inertance over the low frequency range up to 250 Hz. As for the idler spindle, stronger coupling occurs between the hull and final drive attachment point for vertical excitation than for the horizontal direction. We also note that the magnitudes of the idler inertances are greater than those for the final drive, in both excitation directions.

### 4.4.3.2 Left/Right Asymmetries - M113A1

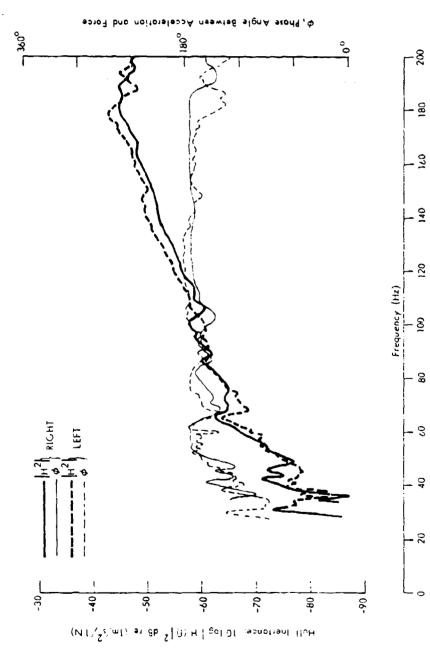
Left- and right-side inertance asymmetries in the horizontal and vertical directions on the M113A1 idler spindles are shown in Figures 4.27 and 4.28. The right side idler attachment is 3 to 5 dB stiffer in the horizontal direction over much of the frequency range to 2 kHz. There is close correspondence in vertical inertance over most of the frequency range except below 200 Hz, where stronger coupling to resonant modes occurs for the right idler. These asymmetries are reflected in the noise-to-force transfer functions presented in Section 4.4.1.

The vertical and horizontal idler inertance functions for the M113A1 are compared at low frequencies in Figure 4.29. A 10 dB difference in inertance function magnitude reflects the great differences in hull stiffness in the horizontal and vertical directions. Further, the mean phase angle difference (about 90°) between vertical and horizontal directions reflects the differences in the nature of the hull dynamic response and power acceptance characteristics: the hull response is influenced at some frequencies by structural resonances for vertical excitation, but dominated by hull stiffness (mainly in the horizontal direction) for horizontal excitation. These trends were also evident in the AIFV results, in particular Figure 4.24.

### 4.4.3.3 Effect of the AIFV Turnet

Inertances at idler and final drive attachment points were measured with the turnet mass both mounted on and removed from the AIFV hull. Since the turnet mass represents only 10% of the total vehicle mass, the turnet was not expected to have a significant effect on the attachment point inertances at high frequency where the turnet effect will be localized to the turnet area. In contrast, at low frequencies where structural wavelengths are of the order of the vehicle length, differences were expected since the turnet effect is no longer localized.

Figure 4.30 shows the left-side, horizontal idler inertance functions with and without the turnet mass in position: no significant differences in inertance magnitude or phase exist. Similar results are found for the vertical inertance function, although at frequencies below 200 Hz, some minor changes in magnitude and frequency response occurred, as





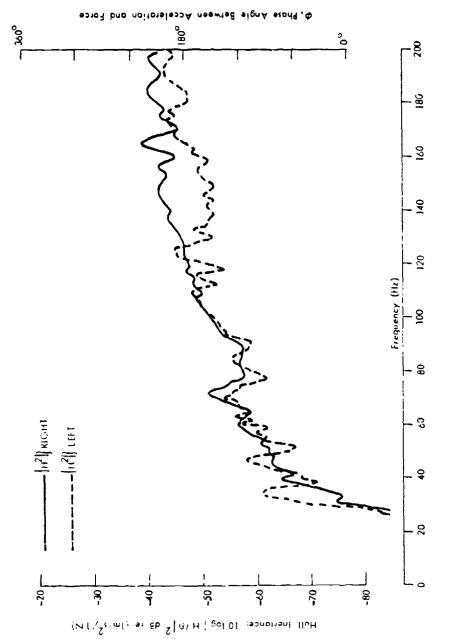


Figure 4.26 Comparison of Left and Right Side Vertical Final Drive Inertances on AIFV Vehicle (Turret on Vehicle).

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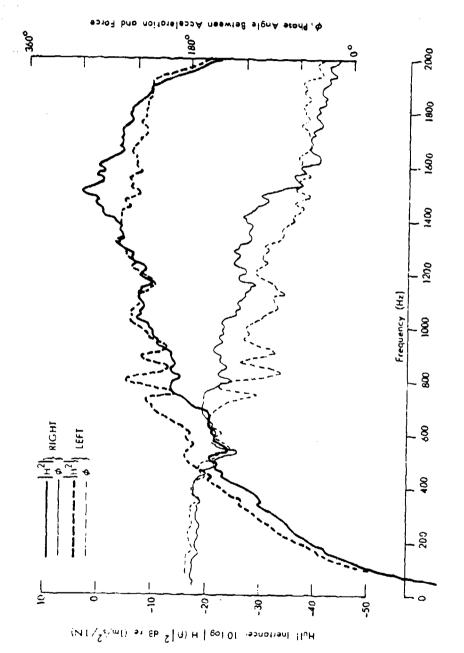


Figure 4.27 Comparison of Left and Right Side Horizontal Inertances on M113A1 Idler Spindles.

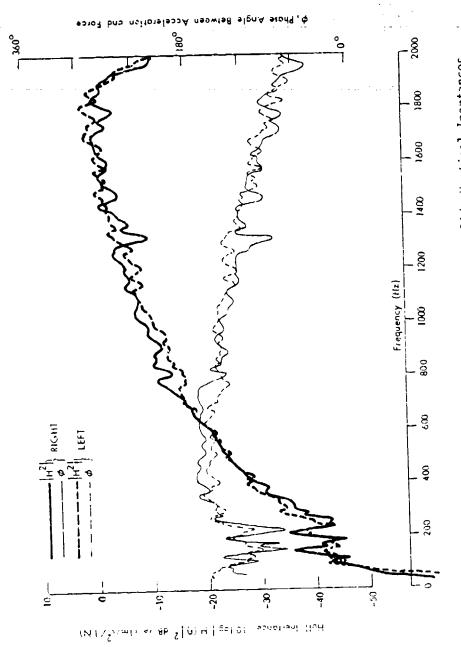


Figure 4.23 Comparison of Left and Right Side Vertical Inertances on M113A1 Idler Spindles.

Figure 4.29 Comparison of Horizontal and Vertical Left Idler Spindle Inertances of M113Al Vehicle.

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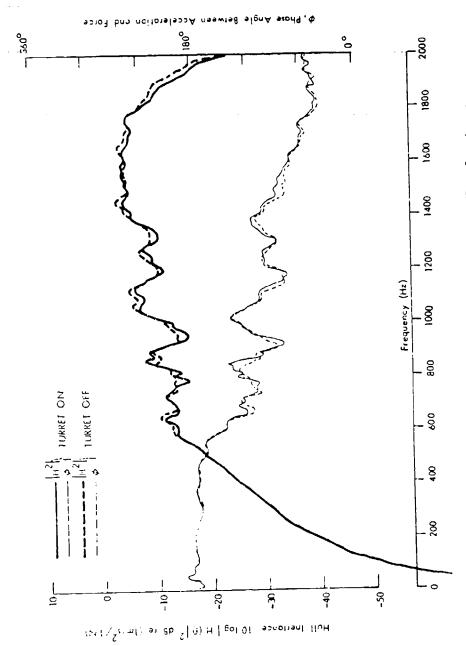


Figure 4.30 Effect of Turret Mass on Horizontal Idler Inertance Function of AIFV (Right Side).

shown in Figure 4.31. Results for the right side of the AIFV were generally the same as for the vehicle left side. Likewise, the turnet mass had no significant effect on final drive inertance functions. An example is shown in Figure 4.32.

## 4.4.3.4 AIFV/M113A1 Comparisons

Figure 4.33 presents direct comparison of the left-side, idler spindle inertance functions measured for vertical excitation. While there are general similarities in the results, certain differences are clear. At both vehicles exhibit a resonant response. frequencies below 250 Hz This is characterized by phase variations from 0° and strong fluctuations in inertance magnitude with frequency. The frequency range over which this occurs is wider for the M113A1 than for the AIFV. At the same time the inertance magnitude of the M113A1 is up to 10 dB greater than that for the AIFV. It appears that the M113A1 structure will more easily accept low frequency power for vertical idler forces than will the AIFV structure. The same trend exists for measurements on the right side of the vehicles. At higher frequencies, the M113Al inertance exceeds that of the AIFV by about 3 dB, while the phase variations are essentially the same. The power accepting character of the right idler at high frequencies is similar.

The horizontal inertance functions of the idlers of the two vehicles are similar as shown in Figure 4.34.

Figure 4.35 compares final-drive vertical and horizontal inertance functions for AIFV and M113A1: the instrumentation system involved was similar to that in Figure 4.18 and is described in [17]. The M113A1 vertical inertance is much the same as that of the AIFV, but the mid-frequency horizontal inertance of the M113A1 final-drive is about 2 dB greater than that of the AIFV.

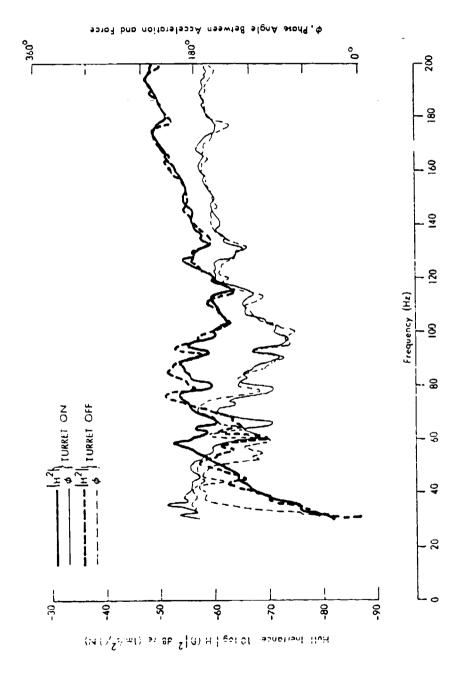
Figure 4.36 shows the inertance measured at the bottom of the roadarm attachment (on the bearing housing) for the AIFV and M113A1 vehicles: the transfer functions are similar, and both indicated a primarily stiffness-controlled response at the roadarm/hull attachment points.

It appears that the major differences between the two vehicles lie in the power accepting characteristics of the idler in the vertical and, to a minor extent, horizontal directions at low frequencies.

# 4.4.4 Discussion

The following major observations can be made from these measurements:

- 1. At frequencies below 250 Hz, the vertical inertance of each hull is greater than that in the horizontal direction.
- 2. The vertical idler inertance of the M113A1 hull is greater than that of the AIFV hull, particularly between 100 and 300 Hz.



Effect of Turret Mass on Vertical Idler Inertance Function on AIFV (Right Side). Figure 4.31

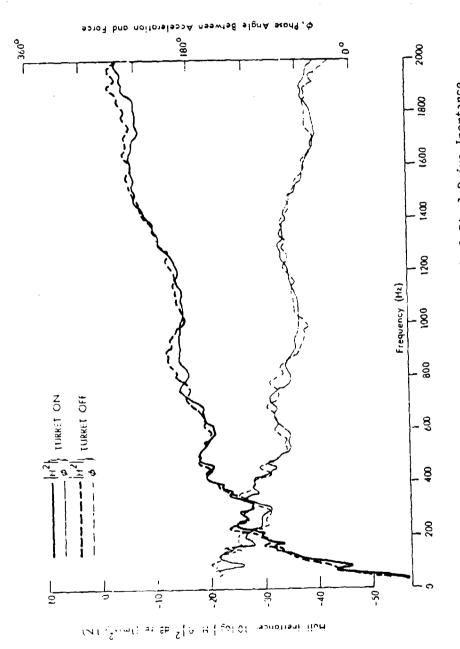


Figure 4.32 Effect of Turret Mass on Vertical Final Orive Inertance Function of AIFV (Right Side).

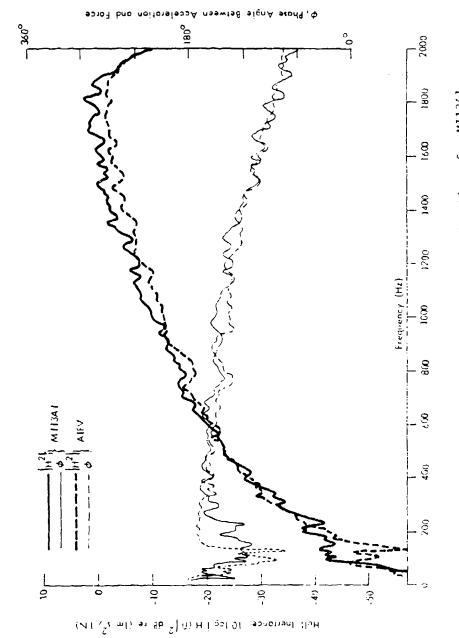


Figure 4.33 Comparison of Vertical Inertance Functions for M113A1 and AIFV Vehicles (Left Side).

 $\phi$ , Phase Angle Between Acceleration and Force

Figure 4.34 Comparison of Horizontal Inertance Functions for Mll3Al and ALFV Vehicles (Left Side).

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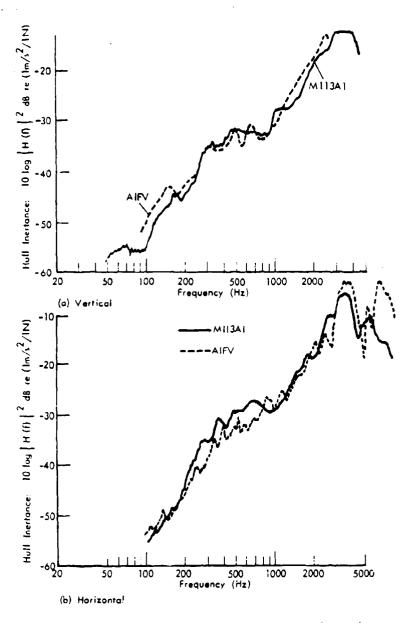


Figure 4.35 Comparison of AIFV and M113Al Inertance Functions: Final Drive Attach.

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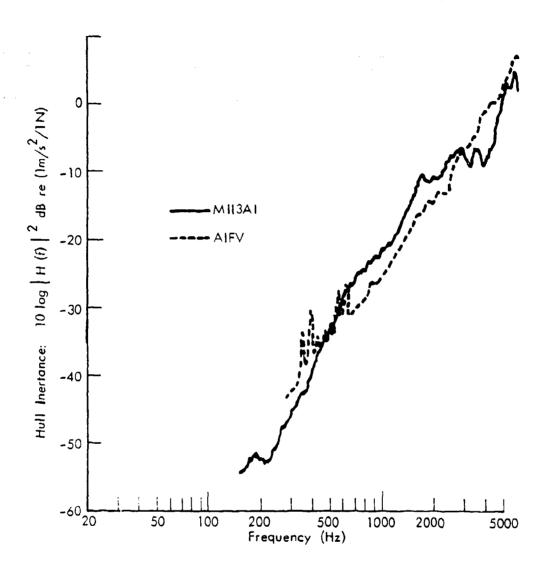


Figure 4.36 Roadwheel Attach Inertance, Measured at Bottom of Attach.

- 3. Assuming equal force input to the attachment points in both horizontal and vertical directions, the vertical idler forces will control the interior noise levels in each hull. However, from [16] it can be deduced that the horizontal idler forces can exceed by up to 10 db those developed in the vertical direction.
- 4. The turret mass does not significantly impact the vehicle inertance functions.
- 5. Strong asymmetries between left- and right-side inertances and noise-to-force T.F.'s exist for the AIFV, but these are less evident in the M113Al data. These may result from longitudinal idler mounting differences.

In Section 4.4.2, the noise/force T.F.'s for the M113A1 were found to be between 3 and 10 dB greater than the corresponding T.F.'s for the AIFV vehicle and these differences are similar to the inertance differences reported in Section 4.4.3. This is not necessarily expected since the inertance function is an integrated measurement of the power accepting and structural dissipation characteristics of the hull structure, while the noise/force T.F. also incorporates the hull radiation characteristics. A more direct relation between response/force and noise/force T.F.'s would be found if response measurements were made on the major radiating areas such as the top and bottom plates. However, in general it is believed that reductions in the attachment point inertances will lead to similar reductions in the hull vibration response and in turn in the interior noise levels.

Appropriate structural modifications are not immediately obvious from the reported measurements and so an analytical model was to be developed to provide guidance in the hull redesign process which aims to produce a 5 to 10 dBA noise reduction through practical hull modifications. The analytical modeling study on the baseline M113Al vehicle is presented in the next section.

# 5. FINITE ELEMENT MODAL ANALYSIS OF AN M113A1 VEHICLE

#### 5.1 General

The vibratory power acceptance characteristics of the M113A1 hull over the critical frequency range up to 500 Hz is influenced strongly by whole vehicle vibration modes, that is by modes whose wavelengths are comparable to typical hull dimensions. Finite-element (F-E) analysis was proposed as a feasible, economic modeling technique which would allow accurate calculation of hull resonance frequencies and mode shapes and, in turn, hull inertance and force-to-acceleration transfer functions and facilitate an understanding of the hull power flow for noise control purposes. This chapter reports the results of the F-E modeling study conducted: included are discussions of the basic modeling concepts and assumptions, a theoretical discussion for the prediction of vibration and noise levels, study results for initial and final F-E hull models, and study conclusions and recommendations for model use.

# 5.2 <u>Summary of Equations for Generalized Structural Vibration Response and Interior Acoustic Power Radiation</u>

The vibrational response of a bounding structure and the associated interior acoustic radiation into the bounded cavity can be derived from classical theory. A brief derivation of these results is presented in Appendix A and the major results are summarized below.

The vibrational response of the structure  $w(\overline{x},\omega)$  due to a point harmonic force of amplitude  $F(\omega)$  located at  $x_F$  at circular frequency  $\omega$  is given by

$$w(\bar{x},\omega) = F(\omega) \sum_{n} \frac{\psi_{n}(\bar{x})\psi_{n}(\bar{x}_{F})}{M_{n}Y_{n}}$$

Here, the structure is represented by its set of normal modes, where  $\psi_r,\ M_r,\ \text{and}\ Y_r$  are the mode shape, generalized mass, and modal receptance of the rth normal mode. In particular,

$$Y_{r} = \omega_{r}^{2} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\omega_{r}}{\omega_{r}} \right)^{2} - 1 \eta_{r} \right]$$

where  $\omega_{r}$  and  $\eta_{r}$  are the resonance frequency and loss factor of the rth mode, and

$$M_{\mathbf{p}} = \int_{\overline{\mathbf{x}}} m(\overline{\mathbf{x}}) \psi_{\mathbf{p}}^{2} (\overline{\mathbf{x}}) d\overline{\mathbf{x}}$$

where  $n(\bar{x})$  is the surface mass density of the structure at x.

When several modes are resonant in a narrow frequency band of width  $\Delta\omega$  and the amplitude of the excitation force  $F(\omega)$  at  $\overline{\chi}_F$  is constant over the analysis band, the vibrational response of the structure will be determined by the resonant peaks of those modes resonant in the analysis band (reduction). In assessing the effects of structural modifications, estimates of space-averaged, mean-square displacements averaged over the narrow band of frequencies  $\Delta\omega$  are more useful than point-to-point transfer functions, due to the spatial variation in surface displacement. An expression for these displacements is derived in Appendix A as equation (A.12). The band-averaged displacement spectrum is

$$\frac{\overline{w_{\Delta}^2, \lambda}}{\overline{w_{\Delta}^2, \lambda}} = \frac{\pi}{2\omega^3} \cdot \frac{\overline{p_{\Delta}^2}}{2\omega} \cdot \sum_{P \in \Delta\omega} \frac{\left[\frac{1}{A} \int_{A} \psi_{P}^2(\overline{x}) d\overline{x}\right] \psi_{P}^2(\overline{x}_{P})}{\overline{m_{P}^2 \eta_{P}}}$$
(12)

where  $F_{\Lambda}^2 = \frac{F^2(\omega)}{2} \Delta \omega$ . is the band-limited force spectrum level.

Here  $\overline{w^2\Delta}$ , A is the space-averaged mean-square displacement, averaged over  $\Delta\omega$ , developed on the structural element A in response to the bandlimited force  $F^2\Delta$  acting at  $\overline{x}_F$ . Such an element could be the roof or floor or sidewall, and each contribution to the total energy of vibration is indicated by the expression

 $\int_{\hat{L}} m\psi_{\hat{r}}^{2}(\bar{x}) d\bar{x}$ 

The term in square brackets describes the restraint provided by the structure on the region A of interest.

The quantities M<sub>r</sub>,  $\psi_r(\bar{x})$ , and  $\psi_r(\bar{x}_F)$  are calculated in the F-E computing procedure so that equation (A.12) can be evaluated by manipulation of the output file data.

The band-limited acoustic power  $W_{\Delta,\Lambda}$  in watts radiated to the cavity interior from the structural element A is derived as (Equation (A.19))

$$W_{\Delta,A} = \omega^{2} \overline{W_{\Delta,A}^{2}} \cdot \overline{R_{rad,A}}$$

$$W_{\Delta,A} = \frac{\pi}{2} \frac{F_{\Delta}^{2}}{\omega \Delta \omega} \cdot \sum_{r \in \Lambda \omega} \frac{\left[\frac{1}{A} \int_{A} \psi_{r}^{2}(\overline{x}) d\overline{x}\right] \psi_{r}^{2}(\overline{x}_{r})}{M_{r}^{2} \eta_{r}} \cdot \overline{R_{rad,A}}$$

$$(13)$$

where  $\overline{R}_{rad}$ , A is the band-averaged radiation resistance for the structural element A, calculated from Statistical Energy Analysis. Such an approach will be valid within reasonable limits for frequencies of about 200 Hz and above. For example, using Equation (9.5.16) from [15] for the modal density of a rectangular parallelopiped, the M113A1 of interest will have 5 acoustic modes in the 200 Hz one-third octave band. Alternative approaches, while theoretically practical, will be excessively expensive, yet cannot be guaranteed to be more accurate due to imprecision in input data.

Equation (13) shows that the results for structural response of the various hull elements can be used to directly calculate the interior radiation. Likewise, noise reductions associated with different hull configurations can be assessed by changes in  $w^2$  and R rad.A.

# 5.3 <u>Modeling Procedure</u>

The basic concept of the finite element method is that every structure may be considered to be an assemblage of individual structural components

or elements. The structure must consist of a finite number of such elements, interconnected at a finite number of joints or nodal points. This finite character of the structural representation makes possible the analysis by means of matrix equations, as distinct from the continuum mechanics approach which becomes impractical for complex structures. Thus, and on account of the general simplicity of the M113 hull, F-E analysis was selected as the modeling procedure.

To make the validation of the finite-element model more direct, the bare hull was modeled in the configuration corresponding to the inertance and noise/force transfer function measurements described earlier. Extension of results to underway operation will require some additional modeling of the idler linkages. The hull model presently includes the idler spindle only. The bilateral symmetry of the hull suggested that only half of the structure needed to be modeled, and this was done with a combination of plate and beam elements using only about 150 nodes. In the modal extraction process symmetric and antisymmetric modes were generated in two computer runs where the hull centerline boundary conditions are main- tained to have, respectively, zero vertical displacement but may rotate. or zero rotation but may deflect vertically: computer costs are thus significantly reduced. Very stiff members, such as the longitudinal box beams, the bottom plate stiffeners, the narrow sill plates bounding the ramp door and the cupola support frames, were modeled with equivalent Massive elements such as the batteries, fuel tanks, heam elements. hatches, and the ramp door were represented as lumped massus located at The vehicle engine, roadwheels, track, and suspension boundary nodes. elements were considered isolated from the hull and therefore omitted, as were the forward engine hatch cover plates.

Large plate elements such as the top plate, bottom plate, and upper side plates were represented by plate elements connecting a grid of node points distributed approximately uniformly over the hull surfaces. The local stiffness characteristics of the idler spindle and mounting pad were represented by a beam of equivalent stiffness, determined from a static analysis of the idler pad area using a finite element modeling technique, EASE2, which is supported by Engineering Analysis Corporation, Los Angeles. The local stiffness characteristics were added into the hull model.

Mode shapes, resonance frequencies, and modal masses were computed using the STAR program of the MRI/STARDYNE Static and Dynamic Structural Analysis System, developed by Mechanics Research Inc., Los Angeles.

Transfer functions, both drive point inertance and hull acceleration-to-idler force T.F.'s, were calculated using DYNRE2 program of the MRI/STARDYNE System. In this, loss factor data from previous measurements were used. T.F.'s were computed for both symmetric and antisymmetric modes and combined as vectors.

Validation was to be carried out by comparison of measured and computed idler inertance and hull acceleration-to-force T.F.'s. Limited noise-to-force T.F.'s were to be computed for comparison with measurement.

### 5.4 Results

## 5.4.1 Initial Model Configuration

The initial modeling array of nodes and plate elements is shown in Figures 5.1 (a), (b) and (c) in isometric view, and Figure 5.1 (d) in a single projection where all the elements and nodes are connected as modeled.

The top plate consisted of a rectangular array, 9 elements along the top plate length and 4 elements across half the top plate width. Rectangular cutouts represent the cargo hatch and the commander's cupola. The inclined front was represented as 9 rectangular plate elements, the asymmetry of the engine access opening being ignored due to its remoteness from the drive point. The hatch plates were omitted for simplicity.

The upper side plate was represented by rectangular and triangular plate elements, with two interior nodes from the sponson to the top plate, and about 10 interior nodes longitudinally. The sponson was represented by a single longitudinal line of plates, i.e. no interior nodes were used across the sponson width following the argument that the lowest sponson mode was measured to be above 500 Hz. Likewise the lower side plate contained no interior nodes across its vertical dimension, being represented by a line of rectangular plates.

The bottom plate was represented by a set of rectangular and triangular plates with a series of beams located approximately where the floor plate supports exist in the actual vehicle. To include the effects of the engine bulkhead, bottom and top plates are tied together with plate elements at node locations 400, 412, and 310. Only one interior node was used between the center of the bottom plate and the lower side plate.

The box beam was represented by a line of beam elements located at the junction of the lower side plate and the bottom plate, with appropriate torsional and bending stiffnesses. The rear hull above the sponson was represented by a set of three plate elements bounded on the ramp side by a stiffening beam element. The sill which extends around the ramp was represented by beam elements, although the sill at the bottom plate line was omitted. The mass of the ramp was represented by a series of point masses located at the base of the ramp-nodes 1200 and 1201, the ramp being considered to provide no significant stiffening to the bounding sill of the hull rear panel.

The equivalent beam representing the local stiffness characteristics of the idler pad was attached to the hull at node 1202 and extending essentially as on the real vehicle: thus a node at 1250 occurs 125 mm (5 in) from 1202, which is the corner of the vehicle. Two additional nodes, 1251 and 1252, oriented vertically and horizontally, are located very close to node 1250, and this allows the response to be calculated at the point of application of the force (1250).

An isometric view of the nodal arrangement is shown in Figure 5.2. The support system for all nodes corresponds to the hull supported to allow

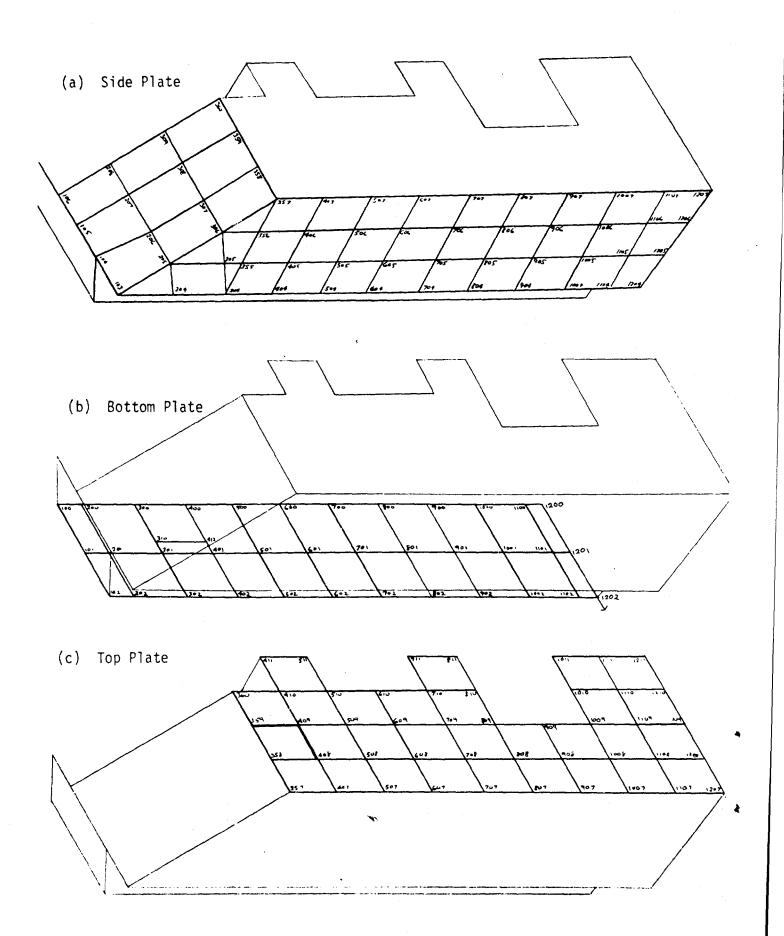


Figure 5.1(a) to (c). Isometric View of Node Locations - Initial Hull Model.

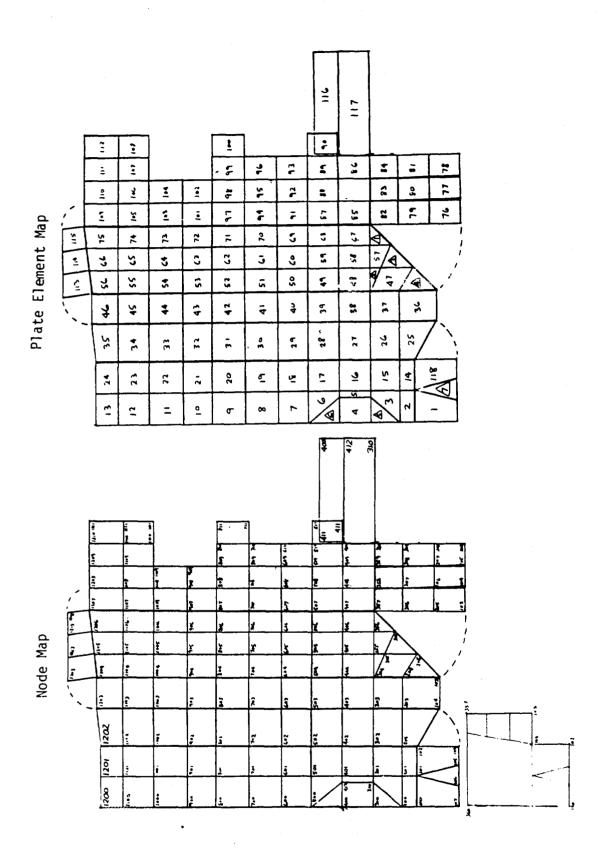
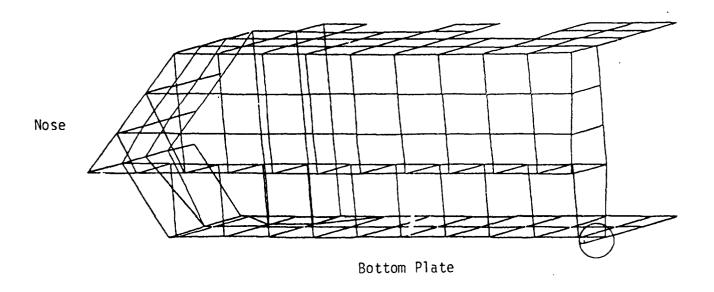


Figure 5.1(d). Element Projections.



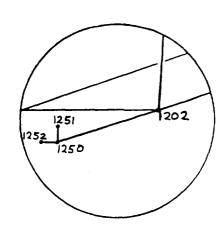


Figure 5.2. Isometric View of Hull Elements - Initial Hull Model

unrestrained vibration. Thus, the actual grounding occurring during measurements (i.e., wooden cribbing arbitrarily placed in from each corner of the hull under the rear sill) was not modeled directly -- rather the free-force supports were thought most representative of the actual support conditions, although at high frequencies the supports should not affect the results to any great degree.

The degree of detail employed in the hull model adequately represents the elastic behavior of the vehicle in all but one respect; the local deflections near the point of application of force. Providing sufficient detail in the vicinity of the idler attach pad in the hull model would be prohibitively expensive and would decrease overall accuracy. Instead the local flexibility is simulated in another finite element model, a detailed representation of the rear lower corner region using the local geometry model shown in Figure 5.3 (a), which shows the nodal arrangement of the left-hand idler pad viewed from the centerline of the vehicle. In this analysis the idler was considered as a rigid body attached to the hull at the eight bolt locations. Loads developed in the idler in response to a horizontal or vertical force at the idler free-end were transmitted to the idler pad and surrounding structure through the bolt locations common to both idler and pad. The results constitute the stiffness matrix of only those local elastic details which are not represented in the hull elements. This local stiffness matrix is incorporated into the hull model as an equivalent beam. (The equivalent beam method is used because it is more convenient than applying an actual stiffness matrix; the solution is exact.)

Figures 5.3 (b) and (c) show the idler pad distortions produced by vertical and horizontal idler forces. Considerable out-of-plane deflections are produced by an in-plane force, as indicated in the idler pad flexibility matrices presented in Table 5.1. In this the deflections of the idler free-end to vertical and horizontal forces are presented in Table

TABLE 5.1 IDLER ATTACH PAD FLEXIBILITY

M113A1 - Left Side Pad

M113A1 - Right Side Pad

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\delta_{x}}{F_{x}} & \frac{\delta_{z}}{F_{x}} \\ \frac{\delta_{x}}{F_{z}} & \frac{\delta_{x}}{F_{z}} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} .2633 & .0440 \\ .0440 & .2959 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} .0633 & .0440 \\ .0440$$

(x - direction is horizontal (longitudinal) and z - direction is vertical)

Equivalent Beam: Length = 5 in.

$$I_{x'} = 22.52 \text{ in}^4$$
 $I_{z'} = 31.60 \text{ in}^4$ 
 $I_{z'} = 34.84^\circ$ 
 $I_{x'} = 20.58 \text{ in}^4$ 
 $I_{z'} = 11.12 \text{ in}^4$ 

(a) Idler pad flexibility model-left side (c) Idler pad deflections for vertical force (b) Idler pad deflections for horizontal force

Figure 5.3. Idler Pad Static Flexibilities.

In this table, the deflections of the idler free-end to vertical 5.1. and horizontal forces are presented for both left and right sides of the M113Al idler attach. The left side horizontal and vertical flexibilities are approximately equal, but are less than the corresponding right side flexibilities by about a factor of 2: the mounting location of the left idler spindle is more forward of the plane of hull rear plate than that of the right side idler, and this forward location appears somewhat stiffer to idler forces. Table 5.1 also includes the characteristics of the equivalent beams used to represent the local deflection characteristics of the idler attach area. The equivalent beam has different vertical and horizontal stiffnesses and is inclined at angle  $\theta$  (the angle of the principal axes of displacement relative to vertical) to produce the crosscoupling shown in Figures 5.3 (b) and (c). These characteristics are added to the F-E model in the modal extraction process in the program STAR.

The STARDYNE procedure consists of stiffness matrix formulation, eigenvalue/eigenvector determination, and dynamic response analysis, the first two steps being carried out in the program STAR and the latter in DYNRE2. In formulation of the stiffness matrix [K], the stiffness matrices for the individual finite elements are first computed and transformed, as required, in a form relating to a global coordinate system. Finally, the individual element stiffnesses contributing to each nodal point are superimposed to obtain the total assemblage stiffness matrix [K]. The eigenvalues (natural frequencies)  $\omega^2$  and eigenvectors (normal modes) q of the structural system are found by solving the equation

$$\omega^{2}[m] \{q\} - [K] \{q\} = 0$$

where [m] is the (diagonal) mass matrix: the LANCZOS Modal Extraction Method was used. DYNRE2 uses these results to calculate the dynamic response (T.F.) of the structure for a set of unit sinusoid excitations applied to a specific node (idler) on the structure. References [5] and [6] contain theoretical and user information.

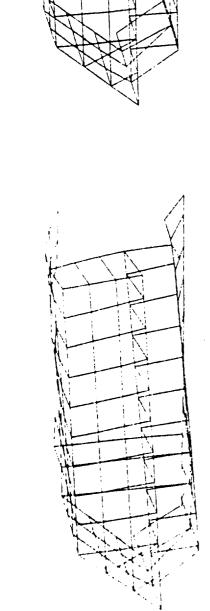
Appendix B contains sample input and output data for the initial hull F-E model for both the STAR and DYNRE2 programs. Sections B and C of Reference [6] will demonstrate the formats used for the various input and output data. In summary, Tables B.1 and B.2 contain, respectively, input and output data for program STAR and Tables B.3 and B.4 contain, respectively, input and output data for program DYNRE2: information in these tables should be self-explanatory. More general results for the initial model are described in the following paragraphs.

Table 5.2 presents abbreviated modal extraction data for both antisymmetric and symmetric centerline boundary conditions with comments concerning the nature of the resonant modes. Mode numbers 1 to 3 are translational modes of the undistorted vehicle, while higher modes involve distortion of the vehicle shape in bending and twisting. Figures 5.4 (a) to (o) show isometric views of typical vehicle mode shapes: both symmetric and antisymmetric examples are included. The annotation in Table 5.2 under the \*\* columns seeks to suggest the regions of the hull structure possessing the maximum kinetic energy. At low frequencies the

Table 5.2 -- MODAL EXTRACTION DATA: INITIAL HULL MODEL

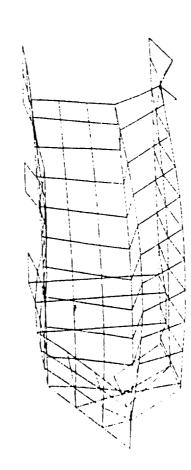
ANTISYMMETRIC MODES	MAX TRANSLATION NODE-DOF **	1208-2 1207-3 103-2 1201-3 1201-3 C 610-3 610-3 610-3 809-3 809-3 809-3 809-3 805-2 610-3 610-3 610-3 610-3 805-2 610-3 805-2 610-3 805-2 806-3 80	
	GENERALIZED WEIGHT M <sub>F</sub>	3394.1 3683.3 1976.1 1820.4 327.89 1333.5 237.28 237.28 237.28 237.28 237.28 237.28 237.28 237.28 237.28 237.28 237.28 236.94 185.91 185.91 133.62 854.75 418.60 929.51 336.35 116.08 241.44 304.88 212.09 444.19 460.20 701.31 165.46 158.24 188.72 116.93 149.51	
	NATURAL FREQUENCY Fr	0 0 19.9 41.3 53.1 62.6 74.3 85.8 98.7 111.5 115.8 129.4 150.5 115.8 129.4 179.6 190.2 190.2 190.2 190.2 190.2 190.2 190.2 190.2 207.8 207.8 207.8 207.8 207.8 207.8 208.5 219.2 222.0 222.0 222.0 222.0 222.0 222.0 222.0 222.0 222.0 222.0 222.0 230.5 250.5 74.3 261.2 Combined element, wh	
	SLATION **	ト つうつう	
SYMMETRIC MODES	MAX TRANSLATION NODE-DOF **	100-1 107-3 1211-3 1200-3 811-3 1011-3 1011-3 1200-3 800-3 1211-3 909-3 511-3 1011-3 1011-3 509-3 509-3 1011-3 1111-3 1111-3 1011-3 709-3 605-2 1111-3 107-1	
	GENERAL I ZED WE I GHT Mr	5398.7 1572.4 5318.5 304.44 155.44 104.95 488.57 338.63 100.53 164.47 76.618 578.54 166.17 130.99 136.03 119.46 122.14 209.21 110.26 217.30 379.75 271.46 237.63 401.06 361.43 116.17 233.80 180.46 65.230 = Franslational Moc	
	NATURAL FREQUENCY fr	0 0 22.2 30.2 38.5 45.5 56.5 66.6 79.9 93.7 99.0 101.7 114.5 118.6 118.6 118.6 118.6 118.6 120.2 177.4 193.4 220.3 225.5 225.5 246.5	
	WODE WO	30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 30 3	

-74-



(b) 30.3 Hz Symmetric

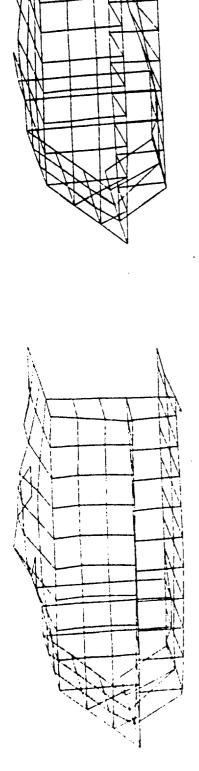
(a) 19.6 Hz Antisymmetric

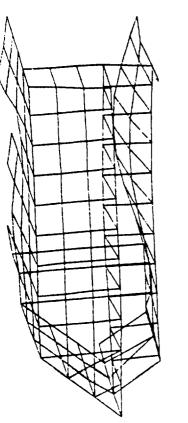


(d) 56.4 Hz Symmetric

(c) 53.2 Hz Antisymmetric

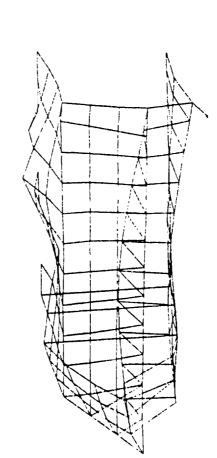
Typical Vibration Mode Shapes for Initial Model of Mll3 Hull Figure 5.4.





(f) 66.8 Hz Symmetric

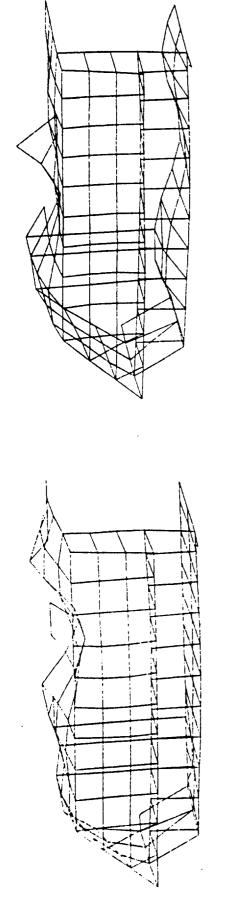
(e) 62.7 Hz Antisymmetric



(h) 93.7 Hz Symmetric

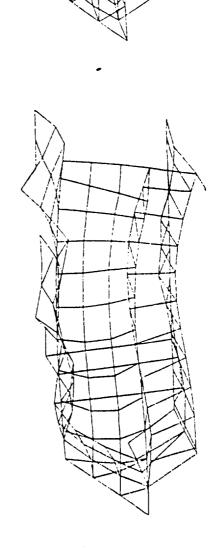
(g) 85.9 Hz Antisymmetric





(j) 136.6 Hz Symmetric

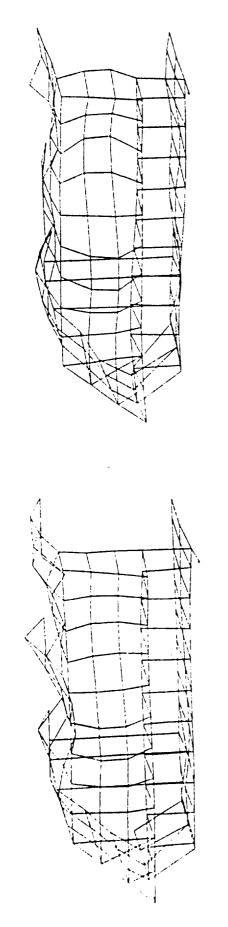
(i) 111.6 Hz Antisymmetric

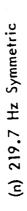


(I) 176 Hz Symmetric

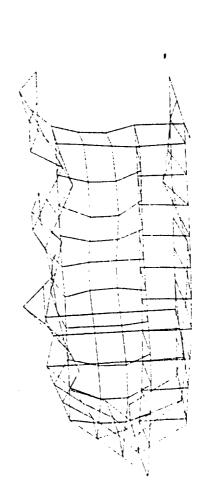
(k) 156 Hz Antisymmetric







(m) 207 Hz Antisymmetric



(o) 222 Hz Antisymmetric

Typical Vibration Mode Shapes for Initial Model of Mll3 Hull Figure 5.4.

vibration modes involve twisting, dilatation, and bending of the whole vehicle; as frequency increases, the structural wavelength decreases and the modal kinetic energy becomes confined to elements of the structure, in particular the bottom and top plates. This behavior is reflected in the generalized weight parameter  $M_{\Gamma}$  which decreases as mode order increases. The density of hull vibration modes generally tends to increase with increasing frequency, approaching at 250 Hz the modal density of a flat plate of area and mass equal to the total area and mass of the bare hull, viz., about 0.35 modes/Hz, as shown in Figure 5.5. The modal overlap, i.e., the ratio of modal bandwidth  $(=f_{\Gamma}^{\,n})$  to separation between resonant modes, is greater than unity so that a relatively smooth resonant idler inertance would be expected.

Examination of these mode shapes suggests certain potential modeling deficiencies. For example, in Figures 5.4 (c) and 5.4 (d) the deflection of the lower rear plate sill is large and out of, character with the nearby deflection pattern suggesting incorrect stiffness representation in the sill. In Figure 5.4 (q) substantial bottom plate, lower side plate, and sponson bending and twisting occurs, and one expects that inaccuracies in deflection adjacent to the idler may be generated due to there being no interior nodes in the sponson and lower sideplate. In Figure 5.4 (j) locally high deflections of the cupola boundary suggest a lack of boundary stiffness. In Figures 5.4 (1) and 5.4 (o) the node spacing is barely one-half the structural wavelength: more interior nodes are probably required for good representation of the bottom plate and top plate dynamics above 160Hz.

Root-mean-square inertance functions for the vehicle left-side idler for horizontal and vertical excitations are shown in Figures 5.6 (a) and (b), where the acceleration is measured in the direction of the applied force. In this calculation, modes of order greater that 13 were given a loss factor of 0.040, while lower order modes had a loss factor of 0.1. As both symmetric and antisymmetric modes have the same phase angle spectrum, the sum is found by arithmetic addition. In general, the antisymmetric modes are computed to make a stronger contribution than the symmetric.

We note that the vertical idler response to horizontal excitation (Figure 5.6 (c)) is much stronger at low frequencies than the horizontal due to cross coupling induced by the inclined rear plate of the hull. The vertical response to vertical excitation (Figure 5.6 (b)) is much stronger than for horizontal, reflecting the more direct coupling of vertical idler forces to resonant and nonresonant hull modes.

Comparisons between measured data and computed inertances are shown in Figure 5.7. In general, the measured and computed data have quite similar characteristics for both vertical and horizontal excitations. For the horizontal direction, fair agreement occurs at low (less than 40 Hz) and high (greater than 140 Hz) frequencies, but the computed curve is about 10 dB less than the measured results at about 80 Hz: it appears that significant errors in the horizontal hull stiffness have been made. In the vertical direction, however, the computed inertance generally exceeds the measured data, but has the same fluctuating (modal) characteristics.

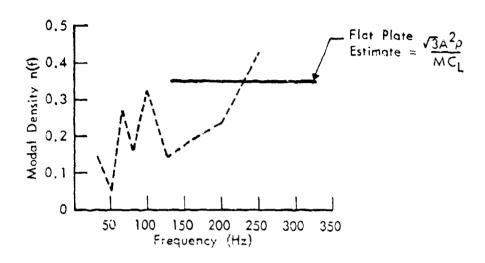


Figure 5.5. Hull Modal Density.

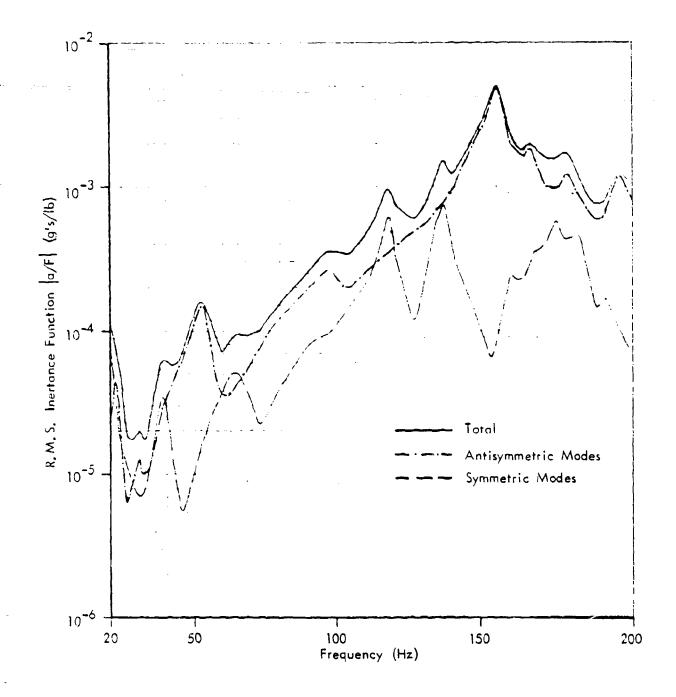


Figure 5.6(a). Horizontal Idler Response to Horizontal Idler Excitation.

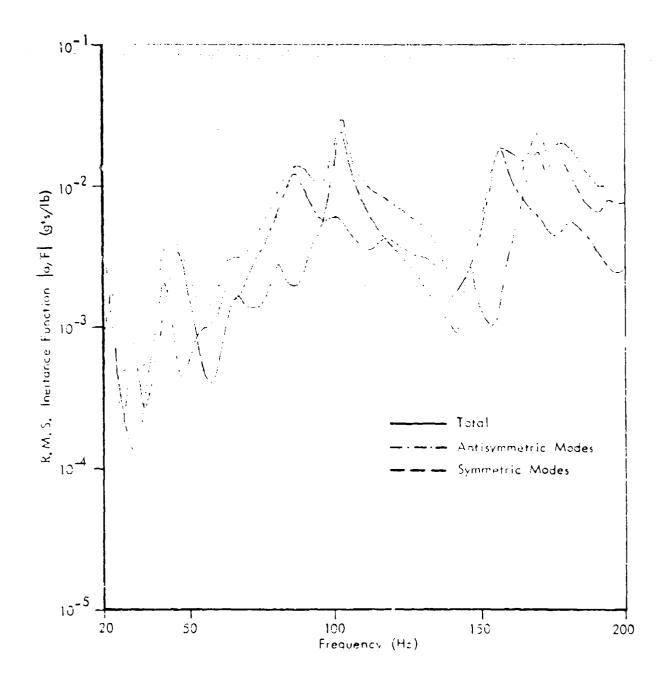


Figure 5.6(b). Vertical Idler Response to Vertical Idler Excitation.

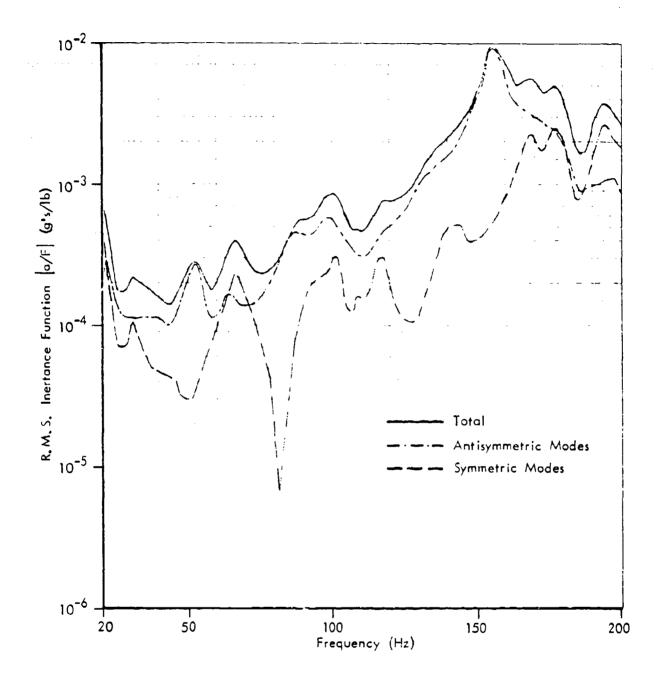


Figure 5.6(c). Vertical Idler Response to Horizontal Idler Excitation.

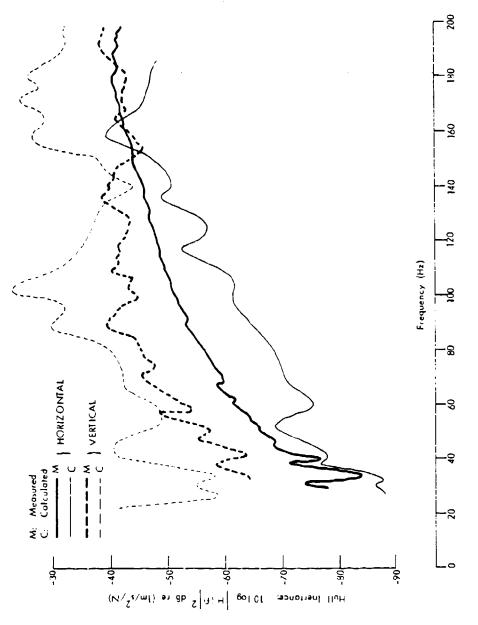


Figure 5.7. Comparison of Measured and Calculated Horizontal and Vertical Left Idler Spindle Inertances on M113Al Vehicle.

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Upgrading the loss factor to conform with measurements will improve the agreement only slightly for vertical excitation, but not effect the horizontal results.

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Figures 5.8 (a) and (b) present measured and computed acceleration-toforce transfer functions for a single point on, respectively, the hull top and bottom plates for both vertical and horizontal excitations at the For horizontal excitation, the computed top plate response lies about 10 dB above the measured data over most of the frequency range, but tends to agree reasonably with the measurements above 160 Hz. Similarly, for vertical excitation the computed top plate response matches the measurements fairly well above 100 Hz. In Figure 5.8 (b), fair agreement exists between measured and computed bottom plate response over most of the frequency range, except for horizontal excitation at frequencies above 100 Hz, where the computed response lies 10 to 15 dB above the mea-While single point comparisons tend to be poor due to the sured data. spatial variability normally encountered, it appears that the bottom plate and, to a lesser extent, the top plate, are perhaps insufficiently stiff so that larger deflections are being produced than occur in practice. The simple model for the structural loss factor used in these initialcalculations was a stepped function of frequency, i.e.,  $\eta = 0.10$  for modes of order less than and equal to 12, and  $\eta = 0.04$  for higher order modes.

To refine the damping representation, the solid loss factor curve from Figure 4.15, representing the mean of the M113A1 experimental data, was then input to DYNRE2 and the various transfer functions recalculated. In this way, for frequencies below about 100 Hz and above 160 Hz, the loss factors were increased, but otherwise were marginally decreased. Figure 5.9 provides a comparison of the calculated inertances for the initial stepped and the measured loss factor formulations. At most frequencies the strong oscillating behavior of the inertance curves has been smoothed so that the general similarity between measured and computed results for both directions has been improved. The effect is weaker for horizontal excitation than for vertical excitation. However, the general 10 dB differences between measured and computed inertances remain.

figure 5.10 compares the bottom plate transfer functions for the initial stepped and measured loss factor data with the measured data: a general improvement in the agreement between measured and calculated results has been achieved, although the strong calculated response peaks at 100 Hz and 160 Hz are unaffected. The bottom plate appears to be insufficiently The transfer functions for the top plate at two different nodes (708 and 1008), using the measured loss factor data, are compared with the top plate transfer function for node 1009 in Figure 5.11, where the effect of loss factor changes on the T.F. result for node 1009 was expected to be small. Of interest here are (i) the closer agreement which exists at most frequencies below 200 Hz, between measured and computed results, and (ii) the considerable variation between the calculated data at different nodes in the top plate. Node 1009 is located at the free edge of the cargo hatch, where the predicted mode shapes have somewhat unrealistic deflections, whereas the nodes 708 and 1008 are located away from model and hatch boundaries where relative node displacements are more accurate. Space-averaging of results, both measured and calculated, is necessary for reliable evaluation of data!

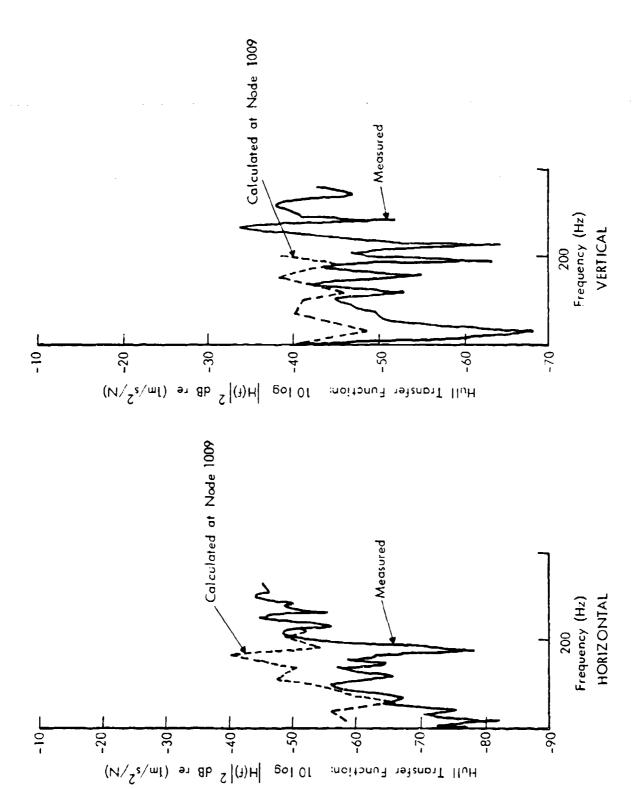


Figure 5.8(a). Top Plate Response to Idler Force.

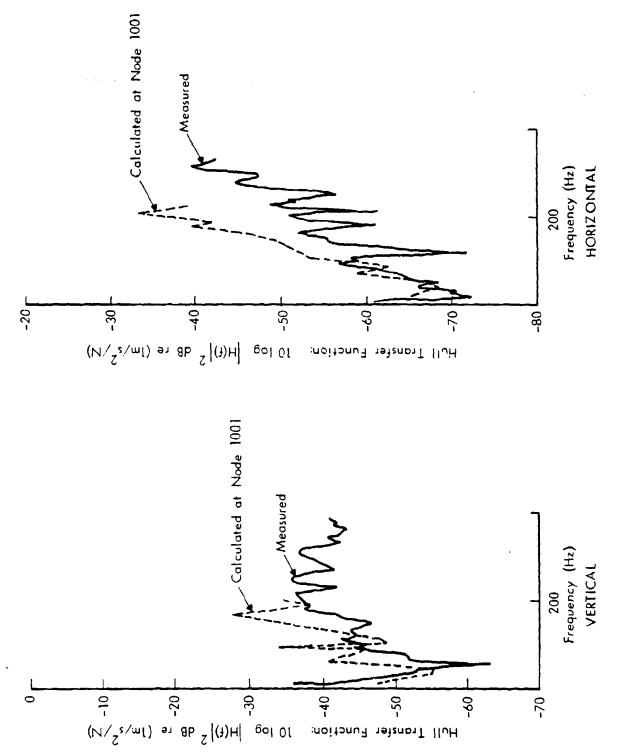
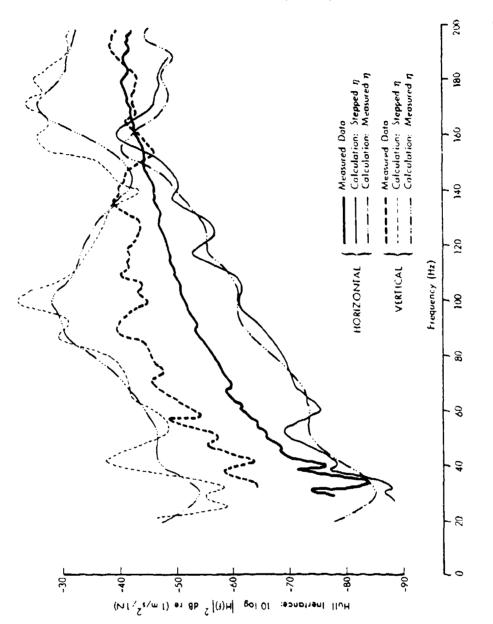


Figure 5.8(b). Bottom Plate Response to Idler Force.



Effect of Variation in Loss Factor on Calculated Horizontal and Vertical Left idler Spindle Inertances on MI13A1 Vehicle. Figure 5.9.

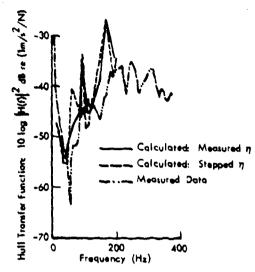


Figure 5.10. Effect of Loss Factor Changes on Calculated Bottom Plate Transfer Function (Node 1001) for Vertical Idler Force.

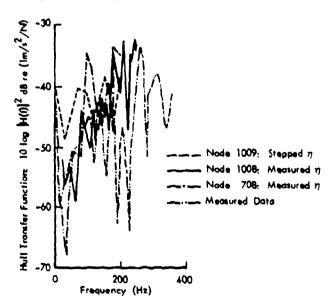


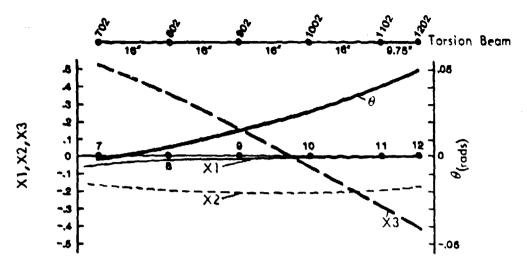
Figure 5.11. Top Plate Transfer Functions for Vertical Idler Force.

Modal extractions and transfer functions for the right-side idler were computed using the beam equivalent to the right-side idler deflection characteristics from Table 5.1. Results, identical to those already computed for the left-side idler (five significant figures), were calculated. In evaluation of the data it became apparent that the structural members controlling the overall stiffness characteristics of the idler inertance were located adjacent to the idler attach area, rather than the idler and the local structure themselves. For example, the flexibility of the box beam is much greater than that of both the idler beam itself and the combined idler and local attachment area, so that, to first approximation, the idler and attachment area rotate and deflect as a solid body against the restraint provided by the attached hull members, comprised of torsion box beam, bottom, side, and rear plates. Examination of the mode shapes reveals that little relative distortion of the box beam is predicted to occur between nodes 1002 and 1202, as shown in Figures 5.12(a) and (b) for two antisymmetric modes (85 Hz and 199 Hz). For example, the slope of the vertical displacement curve (X3) and the rotation of the box beam about its axis ( $\theta$ ) adjacent to the idler location (node 1202) are essentially constant between nodes 1002 and 1202. Since the idler and attachment area are more stiff than the connected structure by a factor of at least 100, changes in local stiffness by factors of two, as occur between left and right idler, will produce no significant changes in overall stiffness, mode shapes, or hull transfer functions, in accordance with the calculated results. Using this initial model, it appears that the hull stiffness, rather than the stiffness of the idler attach area, controls the hull power flow so that even large stiffness changes local to the (already very stiff) idler will have little impact on the hull vibration response.

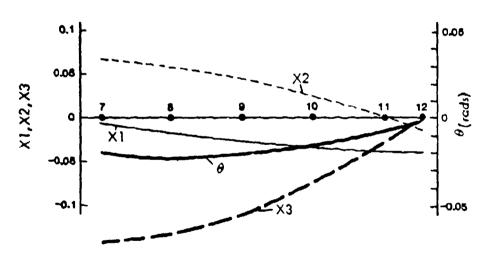
Comparison of resonance frequency predictions with the limited experimental data available suggested that the geometry of hull had been represented sufficiently well. Errors in inertance magnitude were therefore proposed to result from inadequacies in modeling the stiffness characteristics of hull, including the area local to the idler attach. These tend to control the local mode shapes, i.e., the parameter  $\psi_{r}(\bar{x}_{r})$ . Therefore, detailed revision of the modeling processes was conducted for the stiffness contributions of the idler spindle and pad, box beam, and rear plate ramp sill. A minor error in the torsion constant of the box beam and the omission of the horizontal beam representing the lower rear plate It was also considered that the support on wooden were discovered. cribbing during inertance experiments may have strongly influenced the local mode shapes, but futher computations (modal extraction and transfer function for antisymmetric modes) showed that the hull support condition was of second order importance, resulting in only minor changes in lowfrequency resonance frequencies, mode shapes  $\psi_r(x_F)$ , and transfer functions.

#### 5.4.2 Revised Hull Dynamic Model

While the initial finite-element model of the M113 hull produced values or natural frequency which were in good agreement with experimental values, the vibration response levels were noticeably different. Response to vertical excitation was in excess of measured values, both at



(a) Antisymmetric Mode Shape at 85.9 Hz



(b) Assisymmetric Mode Shape at 198.6 Hz

Figure 5.12. Representative Modes Shapes of Torsion Box Beam.

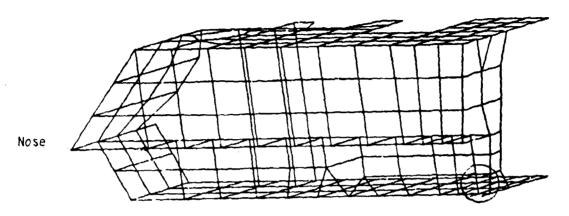
the driving point and in the major panels. Response at the driving point (the idler spindle) to horizontal excitation was less than that measured. Investigation of the problem included revision of the values of loss factor used and modification of the method of support. The results have suggested that second-order details in structural modeling were the most likely cause.

The model has therefore been made somewhat more detailed to represent those structural effects which provide local stiffness, introduce boundary effects, or provide interpanel coupling. As an example, the geometry of the driver's hatch and cupola was refined, and the flexural stiffness of the hatch rims were added. Also, the element detail was refined in the region of the idler to better accommodate the load paths resulting from idler excitation. An additional measure of the effects of changing idler location can be performed with this model, and better panel-averaged deflections can be computed. The effect of the lower side plate is now better represented, and possibly significant geometric details in the location of floor supports and in rear panel size have been revised. The model revision has required additional nodes, which with extension of the frequency range of interest, has caused the solution cost to roughly double.

The revised modeling array of nodes and plate elements is shown in Figure 5.13(a), in isometric view, and in Figure 5.13(b) in a single projection where all the elements and nodes are connected as modeled. As already noted, more detailed representations for the top and bottom plates have been made, including adding in the driver's hatch, refining the cupola, and upgrading the interpanel coupling characteristics of the stiffening members at the top of the rear plate and at the ramp Plate elements have been used more extensively in the rear panel. sill. Idler "equivalent beams" have been located at four positions (nodes 103 and 203, and 104 and 204) representing the geometric location of the left and right idlers on the M113A1 and AIFV vehicles, respectively. The stiffness of the floor plate supports has been increased from the initial incorrect and low values, and the longitudinal centerline floor plate support has now been included. The geometric location of these supports is now more accurate. More definition in the lower side plate has been included.

The local flexibility characteristics of the idler attach area was the same as used in the initial model, but the different idler characteristics are now located at different nodes to correspond to different idler configurations.

Modal extractions and dynamic response (T.F.) calculations for the revised hull model were performed as before, except for two loading conditions corresponding to sets of unit sinusoidal excitations applied at nodes 1 and 4 (the most extreme idler positions). Appendix C contains sample input and output data for this revised model for both the STAR and DYNRE2 programs. In summary, Tables C.1 and C.2 contain, respectively, input and data for programs STAR, and lables C.3 and C.4 contain, respectively, input and output data for program DYNRE2. General results are described below.



Bottom Plate

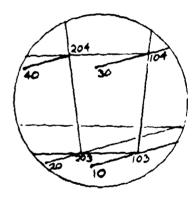


Figure 5.13(a). Isometric View of Hull Elements - Revised Hull Model.

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Figure 5.13(b) Node Map of Revised Hull Model: Projection.

Table 5.3 presents abbreviated modal extraction data for both antisymmetric and symmetric centerline boundary conditions. Comparison of data in Table 5.3 with data from the initial hull model (Table 5.2) reveals that the distribution of resonance frequencies has remained much the same as for the initial model. However, the frequencies of the lowest order symmetric and antisymmetric modes have been increased by 50% and 100%, respectively, by correcting the bottom plate stiffness modeling; the modes associated with flexure of the rear sill have been eliminated by upgrading the representation for the rear hull plate. About 70 hull modes exist below 300 Hz.

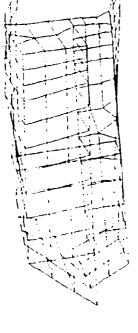
Figures 5.14 (a) to (k) show isometric views of typical vehicle mode shapes, with symmetric and antisymmetric examples included. These shapes are, in general, very similar to those computed with the initial model, but are more precise and realistic due to the greater density of nodes in bottom, top, and lower side plates, and to the refined representation by plate elements of the rear hull plate. For example, Figures 5.14 (h) and (i) demonstrate the strong deformations occuring in the hull rear plate, which influence the power flow from idler to top plate. Figure 5.14 (k) shows how, even at frequencies as low as 300 Hz, the floor motion is restrained by the spanwise stiffeners, and subpanels tend to vibrate as individual elements.

Comparison of measured and computed inertances for the idler attach location on the left-side of the M113A1 is presented in Figure 5.15. The measured loss factor data from Figure 4.15 is used in the calculations. The agreement for vertical idler force is close, particularly at frequencies above 100 Hz, and much improved in comparison with the calculated results from the initial hull model. In general, the calculated inertance exceeds the measured data by about 3 dB. The calculated horizontal inertance is about 10 dB below the measured data over the whole frequency range. The horizontal stiffness of the hull has been overestimated even in the revised hull model with its improved hull definition in the idler attach area. However, since the vertical inertance is higher than the horizontal, and is closely predicted, further refinement of the representation for the idler attach area is not warranted at this stage. Further comparisons will be limited to vertical idler forces.

The calculated responses of the hull top plate at nodes 313 and 813 for vertical force input at the left-side idler is presented in Figure 5.16 together with the measured response near node 312. Considerable variability in response is predicted over the surface of the top plate; the computed variation between the two nodes at a particular frequency is generally about 7 dB. The measured data is quite similar to the calculated response of node 813. It is clear that space- and frequency-averaging of both measured and calculated transfer functions would make comparisons more valid. Similar comparisons with measured data for other hull surfaces have not been carried out on this basis but are left until suitable space-averaging software is available to automate the reduction of modal extraction data following the methods suggested in Section 5.2.

Table 5.3 -- MODAL EXTRACTION DATA: REV SED HULL MODEL

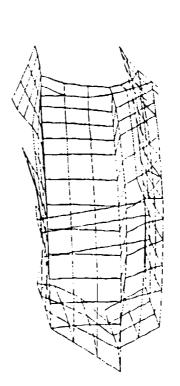
MODES	MAX TRANSLATION NODE-DOF **	113-2 1 1203-2 T 1211-2 T 1211-3 C 1217-3 R 513-3 R 904-3 C 806-2 C,S 513-3 R 913-3 C,R 1213-1 C,R 513-3 C,R
ANT 15 YMME TR 1C	GENERAL I ZED WE I GHT M <sub>r</sub>	3145.4 3057.8 2178.2 1632.3 294.75 191.53 716.65 90.934 1732.8 967.57 179.53 305.41 318.10 175.15 275.64 156.50 485.47 101.90 221.37 379.77 106.38 410.66 312.77 142.25 115.84 171.30
	NATURAL FREDIJENCY fr	0 3145.40 3057.8 .0 2178.2 42.4 1632.3 55.0 594.75 66.9 191.53 72.3 716.65 89.3 130.29 1103.0 1732.8 113.6 967.57 134.9 179.53 161.3 584.79 F 165.3 305.41 171.3 305.41 174.2 199.8 275.64 208.8 156.50 213.3 161.3 305.41 216.6 221.37 230.9 221.37 234.8 379.77 244.2 106.38 257.3 410.66 259.4 312.77 265.4 142.25 273.0 115.84 282.7 171.30
	TRANSLATION -DOF **	ר א א א ה א ה א ה א ה א ה א ה א ה א ה א
MODES	MAX TRANS NODE-DOF	1203-1 116-3 1616-3 616-3 416-3 607-4 1217-3 1217-3 1217-3 1217-3 907-2 600-3 513-3 1213-3 1100-3 1100-3 1213-3 1213-3 1213-3 1213-3 1213-3 1213-3 1213-3 1211-1 121-1 121-1
SYMMETRIC N	GENERALIZED WEIGHT M	5042.3 4740.1 1521.1 134.55 86.839 1031.1 407.61 196.66 309.20 764.48 180.73 176.10 317.92 226.43 150.02 133.02 120.93 401.30 95.490 145.10 373.63 237.67 370.39 319.53 125.17 47.134 72.512 430.86 = Translation Modes
	NATURAL FREQUENCY	0 29.5 39.6 55.0 70.3 79.6 87.0 90.8 110.3 110.3 110.3 110.3 110.3 110.3 110.3 110.3 110.3 110.3 110.3 120.8 120.8 120.3 208.6 218.2 225.3 225.3 239.4 245.1 254.9
	MODE	1 2 5 4 5 5 5 6 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 2 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5



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(b) 41.3 Hz Antisymmetric

(c) 29.5 Hz Symmetric

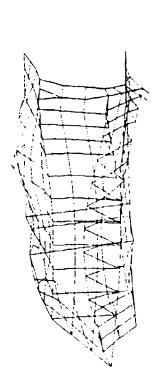


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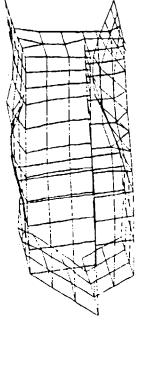
(d) 62.6 Hz Antisymmetric

(c) 55.0 Hz Symmetric

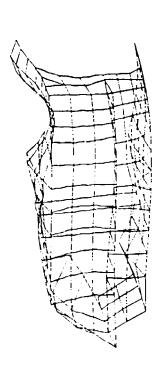
Typical Vibration Mode Shapes for Revised Model of Mll3 Hull.



(f) 105.0 Hz Symmetric

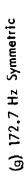


(e) 103.0 Hz Antisymmetric

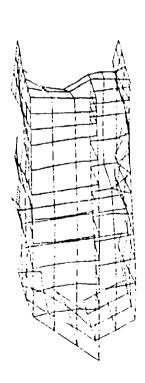


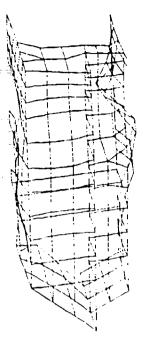
-98-

(h) 213.3 Hz Antisymmetric



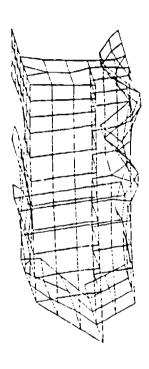
Typical Vibration Mode Shapes for Revised Model of Mll3 Hull.





(j) 273.0 Hz Antisymmetric





(k) 296.0 Hz Symmetric

Figure 5.14

Typical Vibration Mode Shapes for Revised Model of M113 Hull.

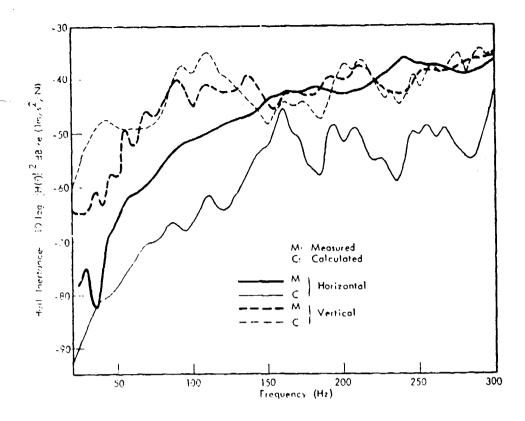


Figure 5.15 Comparison of Measured and Calculated Horizontal and Vertical Inertances for M113Al Left Idler Spirdle: Revised Hull Model.

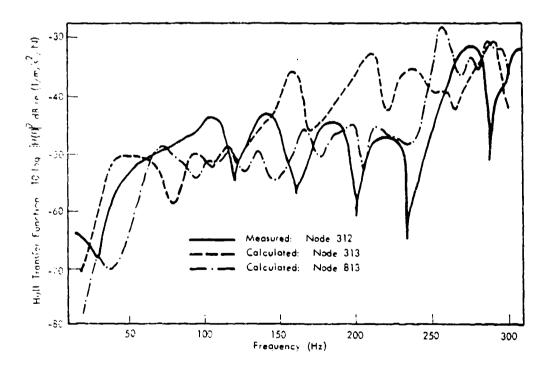


Figure 5.16 Acceleration-to-Force Transfer Function for Hull Top Plate: Comparison of Calculations and Measured Data.

The effect of different idlers and their location on idlor inertances are shown in Figures 5.17(a) and (b) for horizontal and vertical force inputs, respectively. In these, different idler representations corresponding to left- and right-side idlers on both M113 and AIFV vehicles, as summarized in Table 5.4, have been incorporated into the hull model. Forces were applied to each idler in turn.

Table 5.4 EQUIVALENT BEAM PROPERTIES (5-inch idler spindle)

Idler	Ix'	Iz'	θ	Equivalent Beam
	(in")	(in <sup>4</sup> )	(degrees)	Node Location
M113Al-Left Side	22.52	31.6	34.84	103
M113A1-Right Side	20.58	11.12	27.01	203
AIFV-Left Side	21.11	35.77	27.46	104
AIFV-Right Side	23.42	13.14	32.04	204

The drive positions corresponding to the M113A1 idlers are 10 and 20 for left and right-sides respectively, while, for AIFV idlers, they are 30 and 40, respectively. R.M.S. inertance magnitudes (in g's/lb) are shown in Figures 5.17(a) and (b). In Figure 5.17(a) the horizontal location of the idler makes little difference to the horizontal inertance magnitude, but the upper location is calculated to have lower horizontal inertance; the difference being about 5 dB over the frequency range 125 These differences result from the locations of the idler equivalent beams at their 'correct' hull positions rather than from differences in idler properties (Table 5.4). In contrast to the horizontal inertance data, little significant difference in vertical inertances exists between the different idler locations, as seen in Figure Figure 5.18 shows the calculated effect of idler characteris-5.17(b). tics, stiffness, and location on the top plate transfer function at node 313 for a vertical force input. No significant changes in transfer function are produced by varying the idler characteristics.

### 5.4.3 Frequency and Space-Averaged Calculations

The approach outlined in Section 5.2 may be used to calculate frequencyand space-averaged hull response-to-force and interior noise-to-force transfer functions. Several examples are now presented to demonstrate the nature of the predicted results.

Consider first the idler inertance. On frequency-averaging the inertance functions, (equation A.11a in Appendix A) and neglecting the cross-terms (i.e.  $r \neq s$ ) in the equation following (A.11a), we find approximations to

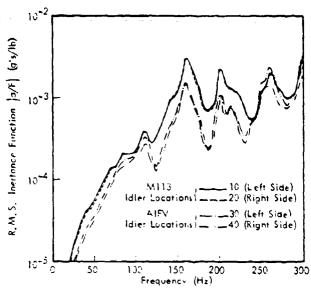


Figure 5.17(a) The Effect of Different Idlers and Their Locations on Horizontal Idler Inertance Functions.

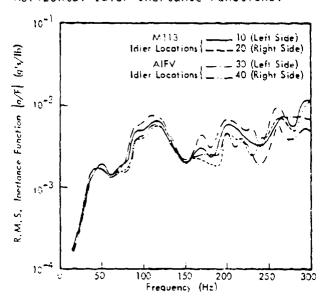


Figure 5.17(b) The Effect of Different Idlers and Their Locations on Vertical Idler Inertance Functions.

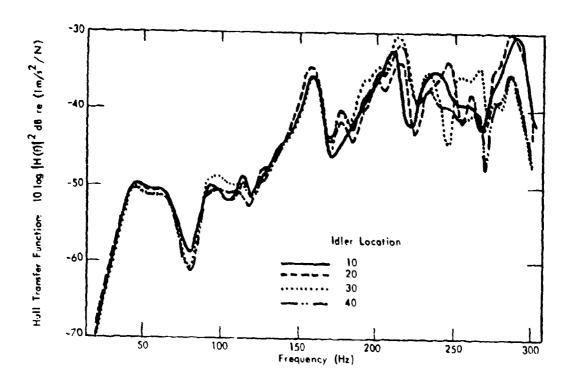


Figure 5.18 Effect of Idler Location on Top Plate Response: Vertical Excitation.

the idler inertance in terms of the vibration mode shapes at the idler, the modal masses and loss factors. The contributions due to nonresonant modes (i.e., modes with resonance frequencies outside the analyses bandwidth  $\hbar\omega$ , both stiffness-controlled ( $\omega_{\gamma}\!>\!\!\Delta\omega$ ) and mass-controlled ( $\omega_{\gamma}\!>\!\!\Delta\omega$ ) can be distinguished from that due to resonant modes (whose resonance frequencies lie in the analysis band ( $\omega_{\gamma}\!\approx\!\!\hbar\omega$ )).

A typical set of results is shown in Figure 5.19, where the contributions of the nonresonant and resonant modes to the vertical idler inertance for idler 10 (left side M113A1) are compared with the total idler inertance, computed on a frequency-averaged basis. It is clear that, in general, resonant modes control the vertical idler inertance: only at 90 Hz and 160 Hz, and below 31.5 Hz, do nonresonant modes influence the idler inertance significantly. Comparison with the narrow-band vertical inertance function as in Figure 5.15, shows that close agreement exists between the two analytical results: the band-averaged data is more useful because the role of resonant modes is clearly identified.

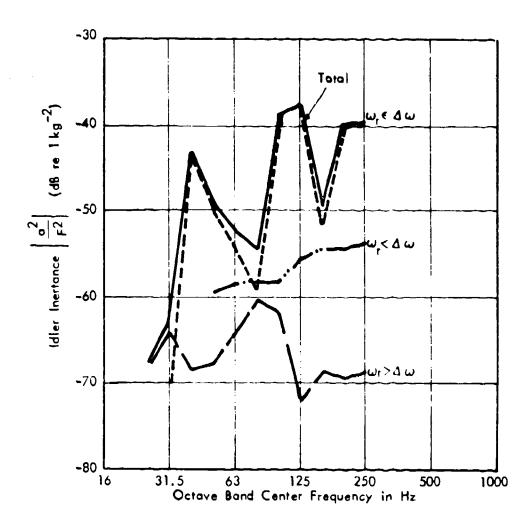
The space- and frequency-averaged response transfer functions for the hull top plate, derived from equation (A.12) for resonant contributions, and from similar expressions for nonresonant modes, are presented in Figure 5.20. Again the vibration response in resonant modes controls the vibration level of the top plate. Comparison with the narrow-band calculated result from DYNRE 2 shown in Figure 5.16 shows agreement to be close.

Values of the parameter describing the contribution of panel elements to the hull vibrational energy (equation A.14) total modal masses  $M_{\rm r}$ , are presented in Table 5.4 for several modes. As the normalized mass parameter approaches unity for any element, the energy of vibration becomes concentrated in that element. For example, for the antisymmetric mode resonant at 66.9 Hz, (see Figure 5.14(d)) the top plate contributes 83% of the modal generalized mass, while for the symmetric modes at 55.0 Hz (Figure 5.14(c)) and at 296.0 Hz (Figure 5.14(k)), the major contributions to the modal generalized mass are provided by the vehicle sides and sponson (82%) and the bottom (at least 77%), respectively. We note however, that for frequencies well above 100 Hz the normalized generalized masses of the top, bottom, and upper side plates tend to be about the same, suggesting the vibrational energy will be uniformly distributed over these similar structural surfaces.

The interior noise-to-idler force transfer function for each structural element can be derived as

$$\frac{\langle p_i^2 \rangle}{F^2} = \frac{A \rho^2 c^3}{V \eta_i} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\omega^3} \cdot \frac{\langle a_{\Delta}^2, A \rangle}{F^2} \qquad (m^{-\alpha})$$

where, in frequency band  $_{Ma}$ , $\langle p|_{2}^{2}\rangle$  is the space-average mean square interior acoustic pressure,  $F^{2}$  is the mean-square idler force and  $\langle a_{\Lambda}^{2}, A \rangle$  is the mean-square acceleration of elemental area A. V,oc and  $n_{1}$  are the



Fugure 5.19 Vertical Idler Inertance (10) of M113 Vehicle.

volume, characteristic impedance and acoustic loss factor of the hull interior space, and  $\sigma$  is the radiation ratio of area A. The transfer function between surface response and idler force  $\langle \alpha_{A,A}^2\rangle/F$  is calculated with equation (A.12), for example, as shown in Figure 5.20. From tabulated values of  $\sigma$ , A and  $\eta_1$ , the noise-to-force transfer functions for each of the major radiating elements can be calculated, and then summed to give the overall measured noise-to-force transfer function. A typical example is presented in Figure 5.21 where predicted and measured noise-to-force transfer functions for vertical excitation of idler 10 (left-side M113) are compared. The agreement is quite satisfactory although a 3 dB overprediction has resulted.

TABLE 5.5

NORMALIZED GENERALIZED MASS OF STRUCTURAL ELEMENTS

Re Johance				al Element		ъ.	*
Frequency (Hz)	Top	‼pper Side	Lower Side	Sponson	Bottom	Rear Plate	Total
29,5	.00	.030	.014	.014	.024	.013	• aan
55.0	.051	.265	.252	.305	.069	.055	, 995
66.9	.827	.046	.036	.022	.035	.023	<b>. 9</b> 98
1:15.4	. 3,19	. 058	.069	.026	.401	.009	.872
134.9	.948	.039	.002	.005	.003	.003	1.000
176,1	.233	.105	.014	.009	.263	.011	.634
213.3	.398	.389	.053	.062	.024	.090	1.007
265.4	•507	.185	.044	.073	.031	.143	.983
296.6	.049	.022	.015	.010	.765	.0(19	.870

While this presentation of band-averaged results is only preliminary, it appears that the approach is valid. The procedure gives results directly useful in the prediction of normally measured quantities of cand- and space-averaged transfer function. The savings in data analysis manpower and computing costs using this approach are at least an order of magnitude.

<sup>\*</sup> In evaluating the vehicle generalized masses the inclined sections of the vehicle mose have been omitted from present calculations for simplicity. When the 'total' normalized generalized mass is less than 1.0, significant vibrational energy occurs in this area of the vehicle. Such hull vibrations are screened by the engine cover and do not radiate into the interior space.

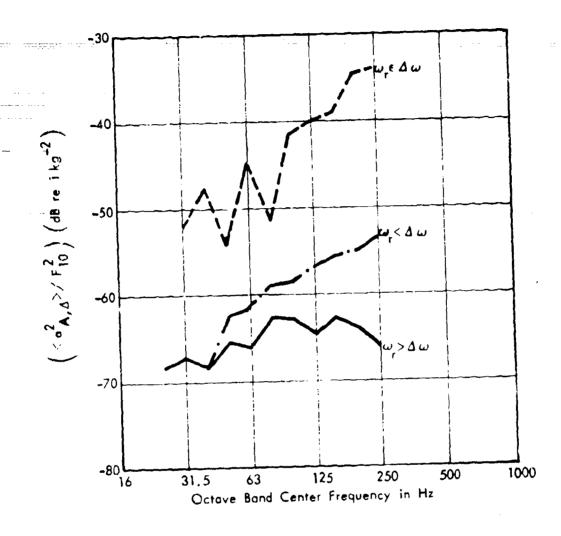


Figure 5.20 Contribution of Resonant and Nonresonant Modes to Top Plate Response for Vertical Excitation of Idler (10).

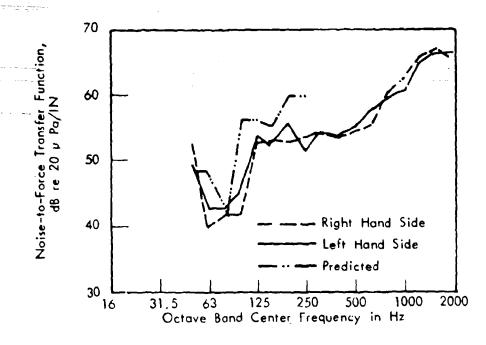


Figure 5.21 Comparison of Measured and Predicted Noise-to-Force Transfer Function for Vertical Excitation of Idler Spindle on M113A1.

## 5.5 <u>Discussion and Recommendations</u>

The main results of this development phase of the hull modeling study are summarized below.

- 1. An analytical model for the M113A1 armored personnel carrier has been constructed using the finite-element method. This model has been sufficiently detailed to allow reasonable predictions of mode shapes and resonance frequencies up to frequencies of about 300 Hz. Extension above 400 Hz using the current nodal arrangement is not recommended.
- 2. The idler has been represented by a beam of stiffness equivalent to the local hull stiffness at the idler attach position as determined from a separate static analysis. This approach seems to give consistent results and alternative modeling procedures would be extremely expensive.
- 3. Good predictions of the measured <u>vertical</u> idler inertance function have been made with the developed model, but the measured horizontal inertance function is underpredicted by about 10 dB. The reasons for this latter difference are unresolved, but it is felt that the differences do not result from the representations of the floor, box beam or idler. While some effort could be expended to resolve this, it is felt that the model should be used in its present form, since the required output from further stages of the model study will be changes in transfer function rather than the absolute value and it is felt that these changes will be accurately calculated.
- 4. The predicted effects of changes in the local stiffness of the idler, corresponding to left and right idlers on the M113 and AIFV vehicles, on the idler inertance suggest that changes in idler stiffness up to a factor of 10 will produce no significant changes in hull power flow or interior noise levels.
- 5. The frequency and space-averaging approach in interpreting the modal output from the finite element analysis is consistent with the conventional approach of using narrow band transfer function data. However, the averaging procedures developed are much more efficient and provide results directly useful and more related to the physics of the problem. While narrow-band information is useful, particularly measured modal data, in the present example only the frequency- and space-averaged results can be handled practically in the prediction process.
- 6. Using these averaging procedures, close prediction has been made of the measured noise-to-force transfer function for vertical excitation of the left-side idler of the M113 vehicle. The major contributors to the interior noise levels are predicted to be the top, upper side and bottom hull plates.

The following recommendations are made:

- 1. Further effort should be directed to finish the analysis of the noise-to-force transfer functions using the space- and frequency-averaging procedures developed. This should include complete automation of the space- and frequency-averaging procedures, for calculation of both hull response-to-force and noise-to-force transfer functions.
- 2. A model of the AIFV hull should be developed using similar principles to those followed for the M113A1. Calculations should then be made of the noise-to-force transfer function. Computed differences between AIFV and M113 results should be compared with measured differences as the final test of the modeling philosophies.
- 3. A limited experimental modal analysis of the MI13 hull should be conducted as modeled to provide additional measured data with which to compare baseline predicted results.

## 6. PROTOTYPE COMPLIANT IDLER WHEEL DEVELOPMENT

### 6.1 Background

Earlier work has shown that an idler wheel would generate less interior noise if the wheel rim compliance were increased, that is, if the wheel had a "spring-like" rim, such as could be made with rubber or steel springs [2,18]. In a 1977 report of that work, an estimation was made of the noise reduction potential of compliant idler rims and hubs [16]. In subsequent work, an experimental idler wheel was designed and fabricated to validate the compliance concept and to optimize parameters. The description of this development is contained in Reference [17]; the acoustic testing was conducted in the current phase of work and is reported in Section 6.2.2 of this report.

Guided by the results of the experimental idler discussed above, a prototype idler was designed, fabricated, and tested. Compared to the experimental idler, the prototype was intended to be more practical and closer to a production design. The prototype demonstrated that the concepts previously developed could be utilized in a practical piece of hardware suitable for tracked vehicles. This prototype idler wheel is described in Section 6.3.

## 6.2 Experimental Idler Wheel

### 6.2.1 Conceptual Approach

The experimental idler served as a design tool to address specific areas of concern in the use of compliance for idler applications. These areas included the following considerations:

 Magnitude of compliance needed for noise reduction (verification of estimates)

- 2. Importance of compliance in the tangential and axial directions, as compared with the radial direction
- Selection of compliant material
- 4. Investigation of heat huildup problems due to hysteresis in the compliant material
- Importance of the registration of track blocks with compliant elements
- 6. Assessment of the effect on exterior noise
- 7. Importance of "guide scrub" on interior noise
- 8. Estimate of durability

Items 3 and 4 are addressed extensively in Reference [17] and will not be disussed here.

A diagram of the experimental idler wheel appears in Figure 6.1, and photographs of the wheel mounted to the idler test stand are shown in Figures 6.2 and 6.3. This idler half consists of eleven spring-mounted "paddles" that support the track. During experimentation, the various spring rates and the shapes of the surfaces that bear against the track were varied. Noise, vibration, and temperature were then monitored.

This experimental idler is necessarily complex in design to permit changes to be made easily for experimental evaluation. This desirable feature necessitated the bolted-together design.

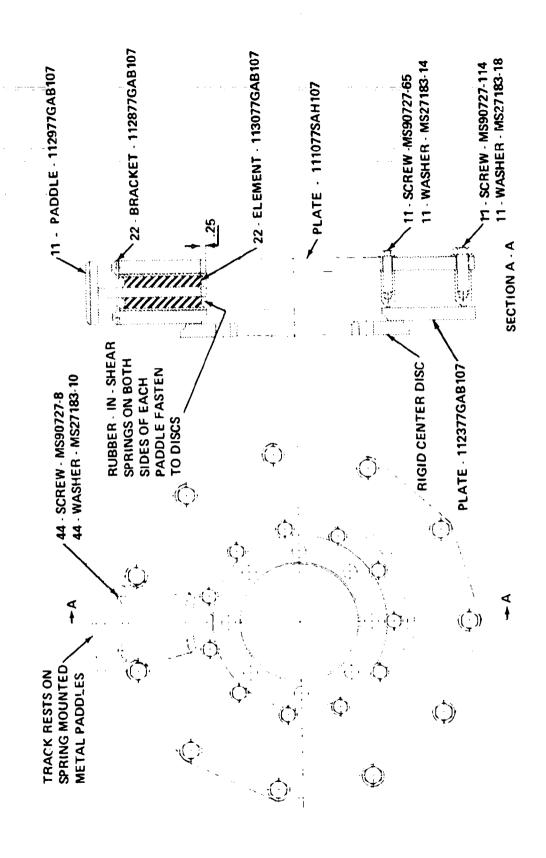
The experimental idler was designed to have a radial spring rate variable from approximately 1,000 to 20,000 lb/in (per paddle) through a choice of compliant element dimensions and materials. Initially, the radial spring rate was set at a calculated value of 4,000 lb/in for each paddle. The noise reduction was documented at this compliance, using the flat paddle ends rather than the raised paddle caps visible in Figure 6.3.

A more complete description of the experimental idler design rationale is contained in Reference [17].

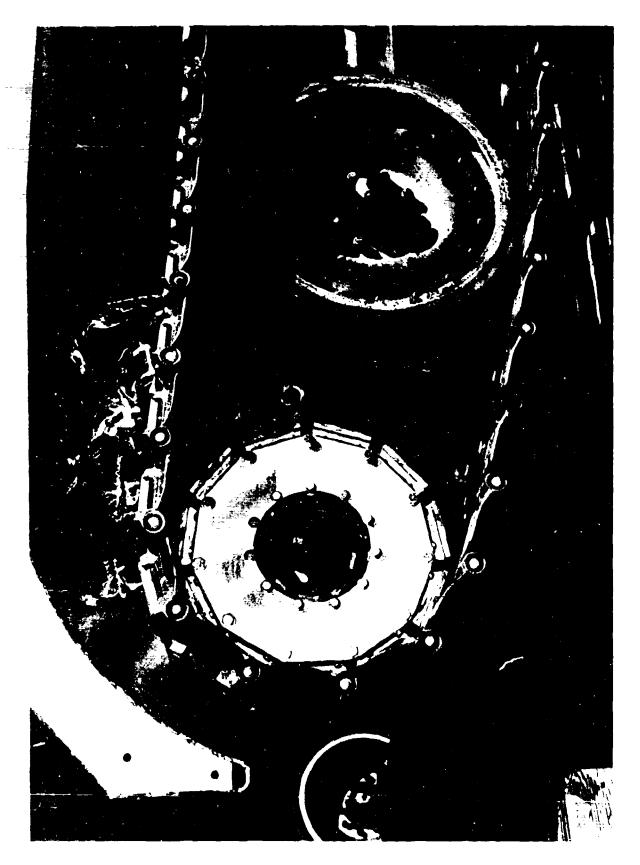
### 6.2.2 Test Results

#### 6.2.2.1 Compliance

Load-deflection tests were conducted to determine the actual values of radial and axial compliance in the experimental idler paddles. Values per paddle of 4,040 lb/in for radial spring rate and 6,568 lb/in for axial spring rate were obtained [4]. These are in close agreement with design predictions.



Schematic Diagram of the Experimental Compliant Idler Wheel. Figure 6.1



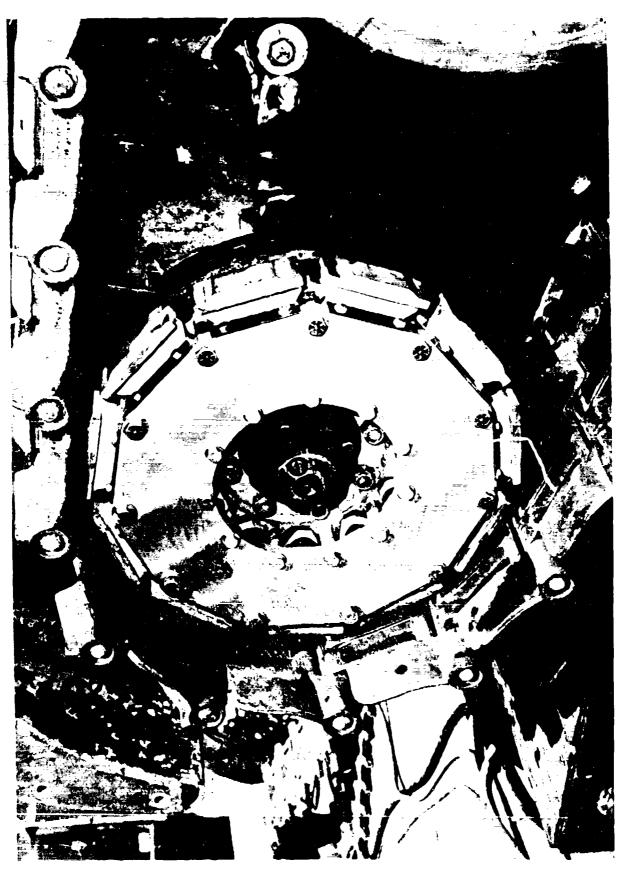


Figure 6.3 Experimental Idler Wheel Mounted on Test Stand (Close-up).

### 6.2.2.2 Interior Noise Reduction of the Experimental Idler Wheel

Figure 6.4 shows the crew area A-weighted noise levels of the standard and experimental compliant idlers as a function of speed. A-weighted noise reductions of between 7 and 12 dB were achieved. The tests were conducted on the FMC test stand so there was no noise input from the sprocket or roadwheels. This stand is described in Reference [17].

7.E

Octave hand spectra of crew area noise are compared in Figure 6.5. In this figure, the upper curve is the standard idler tested at a track tension of 2,500 lb, which is typical of vehicles in operation. Compared to the standard idler, the octave band noise reductions are as much as  $13~\mathrm{dB}$ .

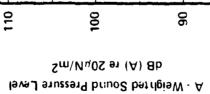
For the entire vehicle to comply with MIL-STD-1474 Category B, also shown in Figure 6.5, the experimental idler would require significant additional noise reduction. This assumes that the combined noise of the two sprockets, two idlers, and ten roadwheels has the same spectrum shape as the experimental idler wheel, but at a level 7dB higher. While this qualification probably will not be exactly met, it is a necessary assumption due to the unknown spectra of other prototype quieted suspension components that are not yet built. These additional reductions are as follows: For the crew area, 3 dB at 125 Hz; 8 dB at 250 Hz; and 1 dB at 500 Hz. For the driver's position, roughly 5 dB of additional noise reduction would be required, based on comparisons of idler noise spectra in the crew and driver locations [16].

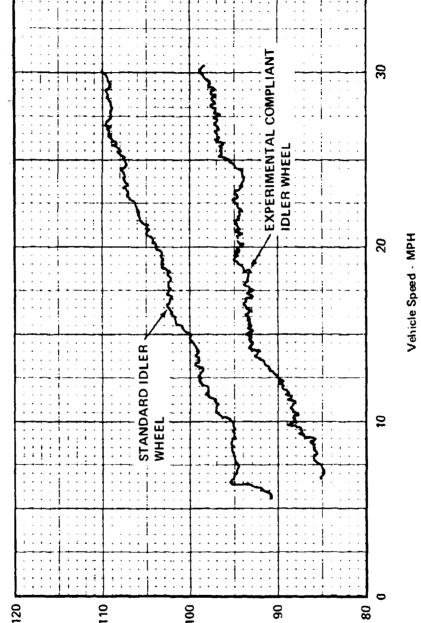
In Reference [16], a simple estimation procedure, based on theory only, suggests "that interior noise will be reduced by about 4 dB(A) per halving of [idler wheel] rim stiffness." For the experimental idler, the stiffness has been halved almost four times, for a prediction of about 15 dB of A-weighted noise reduction. The observed noise reduction was 9 to 12 dB, with the most reduction coming at the highest speed tested (30 mph). Therefore, the reduction achieved is about 2.5 to 3 dB per halving of rim stiffness.

This estimate does not predict enough noise reduction to meet the goal for any reasonable rim stiffness. Therefore, to meet the Category B noise level in the crew area, the prototype idler must depend on a compliant hub, which is a more powerful noise reduction technique for a given total compliance.

### 6.2.2.3 Exterior Noise Reduction of the Experimental Idler Wheel

The exterior signature of the idler consists of two components: noise emitted due to hull vibration, and noise emitted directly from the idler and track. Noise due to hull vibration has a spectrum shape similar to interior noise, while the suspension-radiated idler noise may include squeaks, a clattering sound, or a rubbing sound caused by metal-to-metal contact.





Interior Noise Reduction of the Experimental Compliant Idler. Figure 6.4

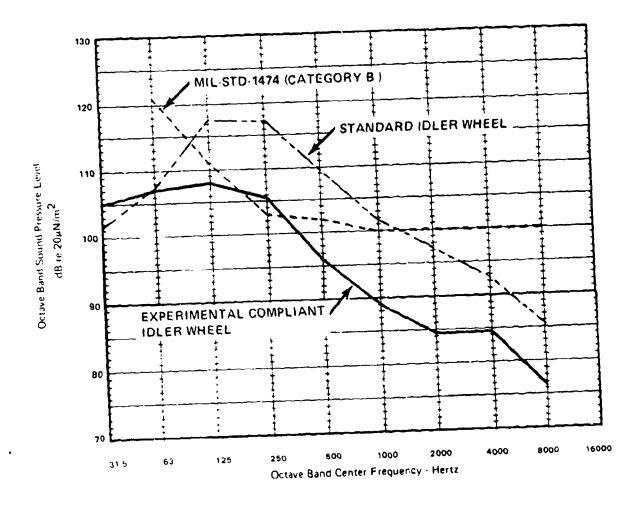


Figure 6.5 Interior Noise Spectra at 30 mph Due to Right Idler Wheel Only.

Exterior noise measurements were made on the standard (baseline) idler and on the experimental idler wheel. Because of test stand noise, the experimental idler data are inconclusive and are not presented here. Listening tests made while taking baseline data at 10, 20 and 30 mph revealed that the hull-radiated signature is most intense at and below 125 Hz and that sprocket clatter is audible at and above 1000 Hz. However, test stand suspension noise may be significant below 125 Hz and near 8 KHz. The data in Figure 6.6 show that the baseline idler signature level becomes roughly 5 dB more intense when the track speed is increased from 10 to 20 mph, and increases another 4 dB for a further speed increase to 30 mph.

Also plotted in Figure 6.6 are standard and specially quieted M113A1 exhaust noise spectra. Comparison of these spectra shows that, with the accelerator pedal fully depressed, the standard vehicle exhaust noise would probably be detected more easily than idler noise at 10 and 20 mph, but exhaust noise and track noise could be roughly equally detectable at 30 mph, depending on whether background noise and other conditions allowed the 125 Hz idler noise to be more audible than the higher frequency exhaust noise. For TARADCOM's low-signature M113A1 with a specially quieted exhaust, the standard idler noise would be more readily detectable at 20 and 30 mph even with the accelerator fully depressed. Thus, reducing idler noise would result in a reduction in the vehicle's distance to detection at the higher speeds, provided the exhaust noise is also reduced.

### 6.2.2.4 Durability of the Experimental Idler Wheel

Durability of the compliant elements, including heat buildup and fatigue testing, is discussed in References [9] and [16]. Durability on the test stand was very good, based upon approximately 220 miles of simulated operation and over two years of existence, most of that time mounted under tension to the test stand.

After about one year, the compliant elements were cut down in size and drilled to provide more axial and tangential compliance. During this operation, it was discovered that several of the bonds had begun to separate, with one separation occurring through about 25% of the bonded surface. The separations were a result of rubber extending beyond the edge of the mating steel surface to which it was bonded. This caused a large stress concentration. Most of the failures were entirely within the rubber material itself, although one failure involved actual separation of the adhesive from the steel surface. Failures were found only at points of major stress concentration.

For ease of manufacture, the main body of the idler was constructed of aluminum. Because the track strand on the test stand did not run "true" over the experimental idler, considerable wear occurred on the paddle surfaces, and where track guides contacted the inner idler disc. Part of the misalignment problem was due to the fact that a single wheel configuration was tested in a dual wheel application. Steel material would be used on production components and would greatly reduce these wear problems.

### IDLER INDUCED NOISE

\_\_\_A\_\_\_\_\_\_ 10 mph, 96 dB (C), 78 dB (A)
\_\_\_\_B\_\_\_\_\_\_ 20 mph, 99 dB (C), 83 dB (A)
\_\_\_\_C\_\_\_\_ 30 mph, 105 dB (C), 88 dB (A)

### **ENGINE EXHAUST NOISE**

--D-- Maximum noise levels in 2 - 3 gear, 600 to 2000 RPM, accelerator fully depressed, brakes "on", standard M113A1 production vehicle.

Same, but for TARADCOM low signature demonstration M113A1 vehicle (Data taken at 50 feet, 6dB then added for distance compensation)

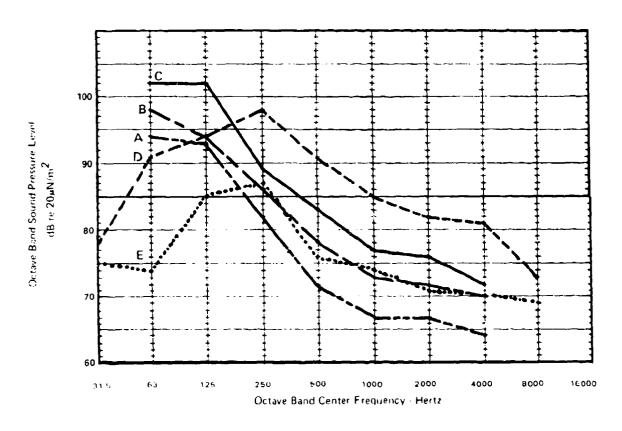


Figure 6.6 Exterior Noise of M113Al Standard Idler Pair Compared to M113Al Exhaust Noise at 25 Feet to the left.

## 6.2.3 Further Investigations with the Experimental Idler Wheel

## 6.2.3.1 Sources of Rapid Noise Level Variations

A test series was run on the experimental compliant idler wheel to determine any potential noise control benefits of indexing the track to the idler or sprocket, that is, by controlling the position of contact between the track shoe and a properly shaped noncircular wheel. These tests were inspired by the observation that track interior noise varies several decibels but with no obvious periodicity.

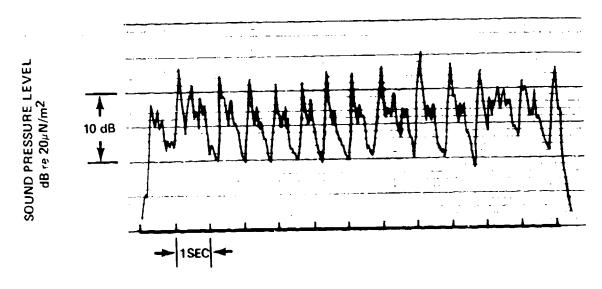
The purpose of the test was only to identify sources of noise level variations, but not to quantify each of them. A quantified analysis would have required the added expense of designing and constructing special electronic circuitry.

The data recording and analysis were done as follows. First, interior and exterior noise were simultaneously recorded. Then, two types of data analysis were conducted. In the first, the synchronized exterior and interior noise data were plotted, using a Bruel & Kjaer 2305 graphic level recorder (set to a paper speed of 10 mm/s and a writing speed of 100 mm/s). To synchronize the interior and exterior channels, hammer blows and a gain change were recorded simultaneously on both channels. The exterior noise channel recorded the relative positions of the track and idler paddles by a definite metal-on-metal clatter which occured only when the idler paddles contacted the bushing bosses of the tracks. The relative interior noise level changes were then identified by comparing the appropriate interior and exterior time histories. This comparison revealed the relative track-idler phasing which caused minimum and maximum interior noise levels.

The second type of analysis was to plot narrow band spectra of the D.C. level of octave-band-filtered interior noise, to reveal any cyclical nature in the normal fluctuations of interior noise. This was accomplished by setting a GenRad Model 1933 sound level meter to the appropriate octave band, and then taking the spectrum of the dc output using a Hewlett-Packard Model 5420 digital signal analyzer and plotter system. Because this dc signal is logarithmic, and the meter risetime may differ from the decay rate, the results are nonlinear and are not easily interpreted quantitatively.

All data discussed below were taken with the rounded idler caps shimmed to slightly increase their diameter. This caused the indexing between the track and idler to shift about every 1.5 seconds at 30 mph.

Looking at the sound level time histories, such as the samples shown in Figure 6.7 and 6.8, the following observations and conclusions were reached:



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Figure 6.7 2,000 Hz Exterior Noise at 30 mph, 3 feet from Experimental Idler.

(Top tic marks denote instants of exterior noise peaks on Figure 6.7)

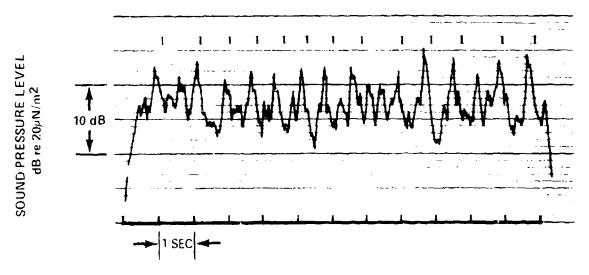


Figure 6.8 250 Hz Interior Noise at 30 mph, Due to Experimental Idler.

### 6.2.3.1.1 2000 Hz Octave Band Exterior Noise

The 2000 Hz octave-band exterior sound level time history plot Figure 6.7, shows a peak that corresponds to each shift of the track with respect to the idler wheel. These peaks are caused by periods of metal-on-metal impacts when the aluminum idler paddles strike the steel bushing bosses of the track shoes. During the moments of lower 2000 Hz noise, the idler paddle contact is against the rubber inner track pad.

The following paragraphs discuss the <u>interior</u> noise level variations in the most important octave bands:

## 6.2.3.1.2 1000 Hz Octave Band Interior Noise

At lower speeds, 10-20 mph, the exterior metal-on-metal impacts coincide with the interior noise peaks. However at 30 mph, the pattern is barely evident. Therefore, to minimize noise in this octave band, cushioning rather than indexing will be more reliable in reducing interior noise.

## 6.2.3.1.3 500 Hz Octave Band Interior Noise

At very low speeds, the sharp metal-on-metal impacts correspond to slight interior noise level peaks. No clear pattern is evident at higher speeds, and no definite conclusions are justified regarding the effectiveness of indexing for reducing interior noise.

## 6.2.3.1.4 250 Hz Octave Band Interior Noise

The sharp metallic impacts predominately correspond to interior noise peaks. However, a significant number of impacts correspond to minima of interior noise, especially at 30 mph, as shown on Figure 6.8. At 30 mph, the interior peaks occurred slightly more often than the exterior peaks. Again, no definite conclusions are justified.

# 6.2.3.1.5 63 Hz and 125 Hz Octave Interior Noise

At low speed, no clear pattern is evident, although a number of interior noise peaks correspond to the metallic impacts. At 30 mph, two interior noise peaks occur per 2000 Hz exterior peak, and every other one of these peaks corresponds to the metallic impacts. This observation suggests that the greatest amount of impact energy is converted to hull vibration when the track is contacted at the center of the shoes or at the pins. It follows that the least low frequency noise would be expected for contact at roughly the 1/4 and 3/4 locations between the pins. Clearly, indexing is a potentially useful means of reducing noise in these octave bands.

## 6.2.3.1.6 Summary of Interior Noise Level Variation

In the noise level time histories discussed, the A-weighted and octave band interior noise levels varied by the amounts tabulated below:

TABL	E 6.1	VAR I A	TIONS	OF I	NTERIO	r soun	D LEVE	LS
Frequency Band (Hz)		63	125	250	<b>5</b> 00	1000	2000	A- Weighted
Sound Level Variations (d		<u>+</u> 5.5	<u>+</u> 4	<u>+</u> 4	<u>+</u> 1.5	<u>+</u> 4	<u>+</u> 2	<u>+</u> 2.5

Other than at 500 and 2000 Hz, indexing appears to have a marked ef--fect on interior noise levels.

To summarize these observations:

- 1. At the higher frequencies, the interior noise peaks occur when the metallic noise peaks occur. This suggests that the high frequency vibration is simply transmitted into the hull.
- 2. At the lowest frequencies, there is no simple correlation between noise maxima and the amount of cushioning between the track and the idler paddles. Instead, the least noise occurs when the track impacts the idler at the 1/4 and 3/4 location on each shoe. which is an area of intermediate cushioning. Therefore, indexing is potentially more effective than cushioning for reducing low frequency noise.
- 3. At intermediate frequencies (250 and 500 Hz), both indexing and cushioning are probably moderately effective.
- 4. In the sprocket design, adjusting the position of the cushion relative to the sprocket teeth is a potentially useful technique for achieving up to 4 dB of A-weighted noise reduction. An estimate of 2 dB is more realistic.

### 6.2.3.1.7 Sources of Interior Noise Level Variations

Even casual observation reveals that the idler exterior and interior noise levels vary as the idler wheel goes in and out of phase with the track shoes. In addition to the indexing between the idler paddles and the track, there are apparently other sources of modulation. Because of the irregular pattern of indexing and interior noise, no one periodic phenomenon can account for all the previously discussed noise level variations. One might intuitively expect, therefore, that interior noise is also modulated by the revolution of the entire track, idler wheel rotation, and the low frequency oscillations bouncing) of the upper track strand, and possibly other drive motor-related cycles.

Because the interior noise is amplitude modulated, AM signal theory might apply, and the detected interior noise would therefore contain the mentioned fundamental rotational frequencies and their harmonics, as well as assorted sum and difference frequencies of each fundamental and its harmonics. This is indeed the case, as is discussed next.

The various frequencies of spectral peaks of the sound level meter do output include those listed below, at 30 mph. An example of a corresponding spectrum appears in Figure 6.9.

TABLE 6.2 CALCULATED INTERIOR NOISE MODULATION FREQUENCIES

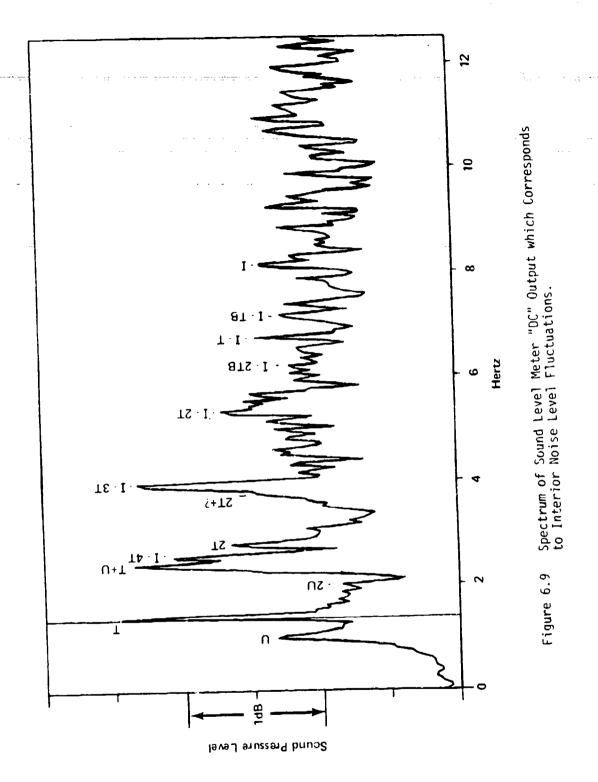
Modulation Source	<u>Fundamental</u>	1st Harmonic	2nd Harmonic		
Track Rotation (T)	1.371 Hz*	2.742 Hz*	4.1136 Hz		
Idler Wheel Rotation (I)	8.107 *	16.214 **	24.32 **		
Unproven (U)	0.99 *	1.98 *	2.96		
T + U	2.36 *	4.72	7.08		
1 - 0	7.12 *	14.2 **	21.4 **		
1 - T	6.74 *	13.48 **	20.2 **		
I - 2T	5.37 *	10.7	16.1 **		
1 - 37	4.00 *	8.00	12.00		
1 - 4T	2.63 *	5.26	7.89		
I - 5T	1.26 *	2.52	3.78		

Codes: \* Spectral peak observed 
\*\* Not analyzed

No Mark Not clearly observed

On most plots, the track and idler rotation (designated T and I, respectively, in Table 6.2) are evident. A peak at 0.99 Hz, possibly corresponding to a track strand resonance, is also apparent. A series of higher frequency period peaks begins at the idler rotation frequency and at each track multiple below this peak. Because of the approximately one percent uncertainty in spectral peak location, identification of the lower difference frequencies is uncertain in this brief analysis. Numerous minor peaks are also apparent; these may correspond to other sum, difference and multiple frequencies.

The qualitative data analysis suggests that nonuniformities in the track and idler wheel are the primary sources of altering the rate of



-126-

indexing, which in turn affects interior noise level. It also demonstrates that the variation is not random, but instead is strongly linked to many regular periodic events -- perhaps even the impact of particular track shoes against particular idler paddles.

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It was observed that the track wandered from side to side. At times, this motion appeared to correlate with the idler-track indexing changes, but no definite conclusions could be reached regarding this observation.

## 6.2.3.2 Shape of Experimental Idler Paddle Contact Surfaces

The experimental idler wheel was tested with both rounded and flat paddle surfaces contacting the track. The rounded paddle caps, similar to those visible in Figure 6.3, tended to contact the track at the pins. With the rounded caps removed, the exposed flat surfaces tended to contact the inner track pad rubber on the track shoes.

Figure 6.10 shows the increased noise level due to firm metallic impacts between the idler rounded paddles and track shoe steel forgings. While the metallic impacts caused no differences in the 250 Hz octave band, all higher octaves show a noise level increase, with the largest at 6 dB in the 8 kHz octave band. The A-weighted sound level was also slightly increased. For exterior noise, the metal-on-metal impacts are very objectionable and should be avoided in the prototype idler design.

### 6.2.3.3 Effects of Combined Axial and Radial Compliance Changes

As discussed in Section 6.2.2.4, the experimental idler was modified to increase axial and tangential compliance. Radial compliance reduced correspondingly. It was postulated that the axial idler vibration might be a major contributor to experimental idler interior noise. Consequently, tests were designed and executed with the reduced stiffness. The reduction was accomplished by drilling holes into and cutting away portions of the rubber springs. Radial and tangential compliance were calculated as being reduced by about 30 percent. The resulting axial stiffness was very low; axial hand pressure on the paddles caused an obvious deflection.

Vibration measurements taken near the edge of the disc on the experimental idler at 30 mph showed modest levels of radial vibration and much higher levels of axial and tangential vibration (Figure 6.11). The vibration spectra for the modified experimental idler are shown in Figure 6.12. The increased axial compliance resulted in raising and equalizing the vibration levels for the three directions. Greater vibration levels were due partially to the fact that the idler paddles occasionally "bottomed-out" on the disc support.

The resulting A-weighted interior noise level was 101 dB which is 2 dB higher than the original experimental idler. The interior octave band

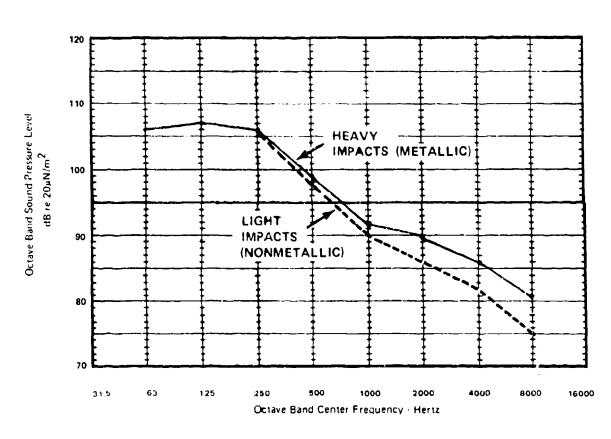


Figure 6.10 Effect of Metallic Track - Idler Impacts.
Compliant Idler, Rounded Paddle Tops versus flat Tops.

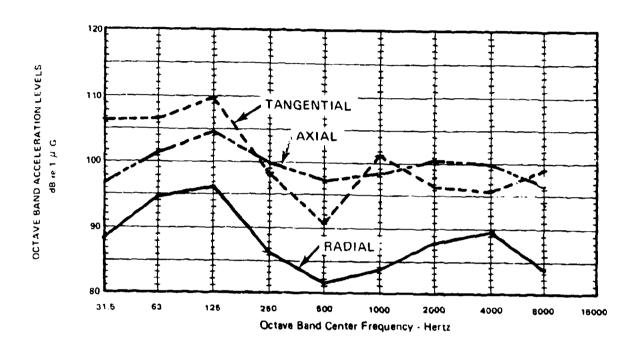


Figure 6.11 Triaxial Vibration Levels on the Experimental Idler Disc at 3C mph.

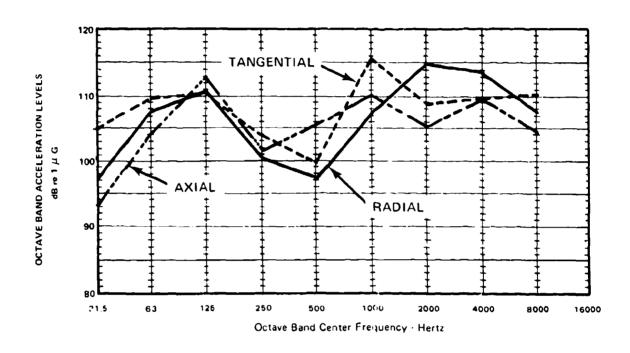


Figure 6.12 Triaxial Vibration Levels on the Increased Compliance Experimental Idler at 30 mph.

spectra are shown in Figure 6.13. Noise levels in the 63 and 125 Hz octave bands are the lowest ever measured for the experimental idler wheel. However, an apparent resonance appeared at 250 Hz, which nullified any potential acoustic advantage gained by the axial compliance. The noise levels of the 500 to 2000 Hz octave bands were essentially unchanged. The 4000 and 8000 Hz octave band sound levels are the lowest yet measured for an idler wheel. This high frequency reduction was not unexpected, based on experience with other rubber vibration-isolated systems. Unfortunately, it is of little value here, as the noise reduction is required at lower frequencies.

The apparent 250 Hz resonance is of concern because of its objectionable 110.8 dB level. It may be due to the soft axial compliance decoupling the idler wheel disk from the track. This decoupling would allow increased idler disk axial motion and also reduce any damping of idler resonances by the track. However, this seemingly plausible resonance is not supported by the acceleration spectra made on the idler wheel.

With regard to all future idler and sprocket designs, these experimental results strongly suggest that a low axial stiffness is not of great benefit and may allow resonances of the wheel to occur because of reduced damping.

# 6.2.3.4 Track Guide Scrub Noise'

During some testing of the experimental compliant idler wheel, the track guides rubbed and scraped against the idler wheel. This scrubbing caused rapid wear of the aluminum idler disk and generated an audible scraping sound. This noise was barely audible inside the vehicle, and was more easily heard outside. To determine the significance of the scrubbing noise, the idler was tested with and without track-guide-to-wheel contact. The scrubbing was eliminated by canting the idler mount slightly so that the track shifted sideways and the guides did not touch the wheel.

Figure 6.14 shows the effect on interior noise of metal-on-metal rubbing between the track guides and the compliant idler wheel. The scrubbing produced a 2 dB increase in the 500, 1000 and 2000 Hz octave bands, and an overall A-weighted increase from 93 to 99 dB. These increases are consistent with earlier but inconclusive data. These data suggest that "hard" track guide scrub creates a 94 dB(A) noise level. Clearly, this number is approximate. Even so, the data suggest that scrub noise must be reduced in the prototype idler design.

# 6.2.3.5 <u>Increased Diameter Idler</u>

Since the experimental idler was larger in diameter than the standard M113A1 idler, a portion of the noise reduction was suspected to be due simply to the large size. The standard idler is 17.25 inches in diameter whereas the experimental idler diameter is 19.06 inches, a difference of 1.81 inches.

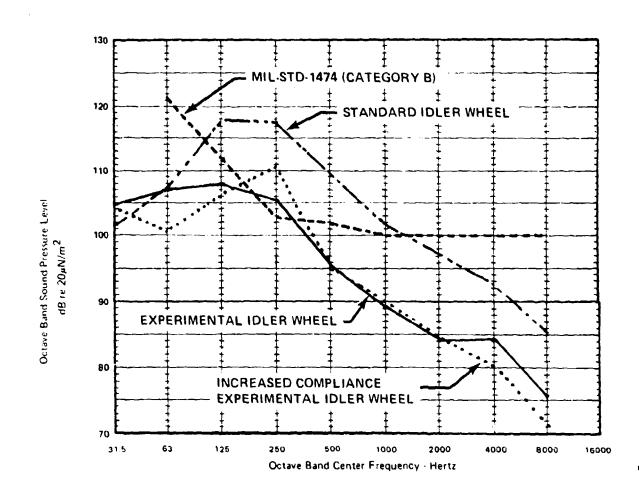


Figure 6.13 The Effect of Increased Compliance in the Experimental Idler at 30 mph, Interior Noise.

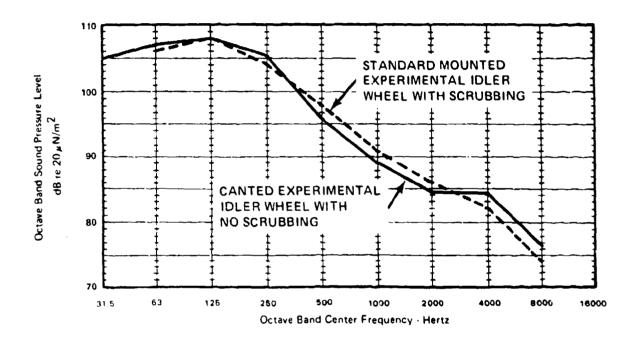


Figure 6.14 The effect of Track Guide Scrubbing on Interior Noise.

To investigate this concept, an increased diameter idler wheel, modified from a standard idler wheel, was tested. The increased diameter wheel measured 21 inches. Using the 2.75-inch larger wheels, it was found that at test stand speeds of 30 mph, A-weighted interior crew noise levels were reduced by 4 dB to a level of 106 dB. Consequently, up to 2 dB of the A-weighted noise reduction realized with the experimental idler may be due to the increased size. A comparison of standard and increased diameter idler noise is shown in Figure 6.15.

# 6.3 Prototype Idler Wheel

A prototype idler wheel was designed, fabricated, and tested. Figure 6.16 is a photograph of the prototype idler wheel mounted on an M113A1 vehicle. This prototype, compared to the previously described experimental idler wheel, is a simpler and more practical design which is more suitable for production. The A-weighted noise level goal for one idler wheel is 92 dB inside the crew area. Attaining 92 dB(A) for each idler, each sprocket, and for the roadwheels on each side would result in 100 dB(A) for the total vehicle noise level.

# 6.3.1 Design Goals

Considerations of production practicality and cost limitation required that the wheel be much simpler than the experimental wheel. A design consisting of three metal and two rubber pieces was selected, as shown in Figure 6.17. The goals in the design of the prototype compliant idler were as follows:

- 1. Noise level of 95 dB(A) or lower
- 2. Production feasibility
- 3. Service life of 2,000 miles or more
- 4. Simplicity
- 5. Relatively low cost
- 6. Fail-safe features to permit continued operation (at increased noise level) in the event of failure of the compliant members

# 6.3.2 <u>Design Criteria</u>

To achieve the above goals, the following criteria were used to guide design decisions:

- 1. Space limits: The idler shall be designed so that no changes to the hull are required on the M113A1 test vehicle.
- 2. Existing hardware: The idler must fit on to the existing M113A1 idler support assembly.
- 3. Diameter limits: The diameter of the idler shall not be too large to prevent the track from being accidentally "thrown" or to prevent common passage of debris drawn up by the track. If sufficient clearance is not allowed between the sponson and the wheel rim, the track or debris could become jammed between the idler and sponson. This could cause the idler, idler mount, or hull to fail.

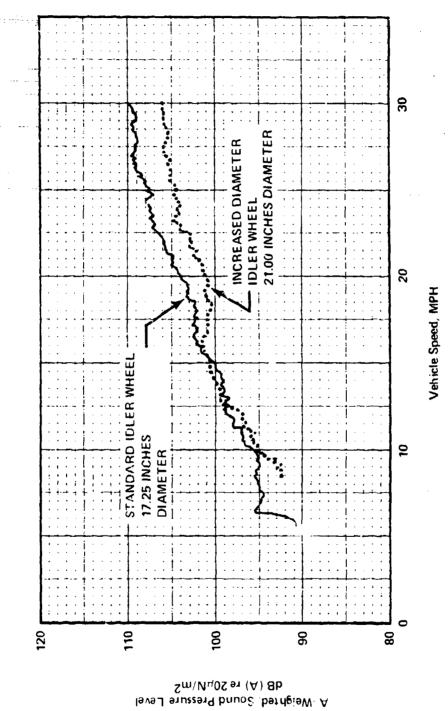


Figure 6.15 Interior Noise Reduction Due to a Large Diameter Idler Wheel.

Figure 6.16 Prototype Idler Wheel Mounted on an M113Al Vehicle.

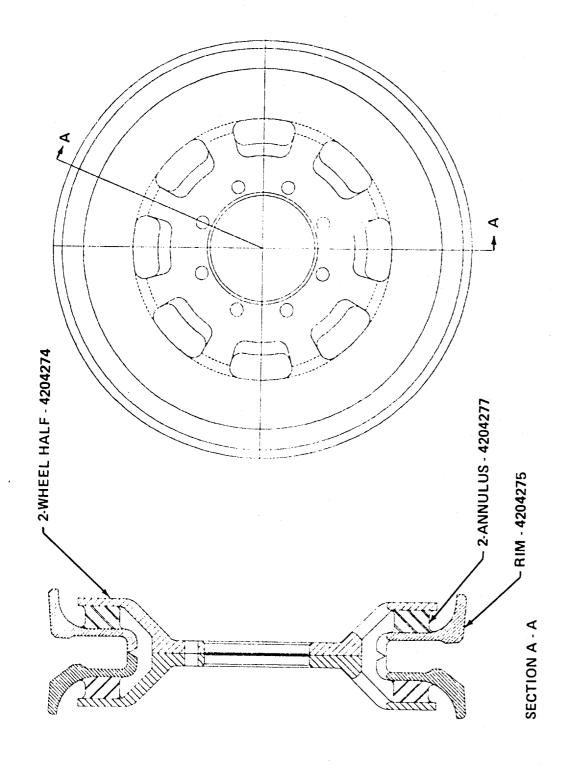


Figure 6.17 Schematic Diagram of the Prototype Compliant Idler Wheel.

- 4. Rubber stresses: To ensure long life of the rubber compliances, shear stresses in the material shall not exceed recommended limits for rotative dynamic loading. For example, a limit of 75 psi is recommended for 30-durometer rubber when shear strain is 225 percent [8]. Much higher stress limits can be allowed for infrequent overloads.
- 5. Static load: The load that will be constantly imposed on the idler due to track tension may be as high as 10,000 lb under normal conditions. If an M113 is parked on a 60% slope, however, continuous track tension loads may reach 22,100 lb.
- o. Dynamic loads: The fluctuating loads imposed on the idler during severe vehicle maneuvers may be as high as 15,000 lb. This load could occur if the vehicle "bottomed-out" on the idler wheel with a glancing blow.
- 7. Overload limit: An overload device shall be included to react to excessive loads and prevent excessive stress in the compliant elements. This device shall also act as a fail-safe feature.

### 6.3.3 Pesign Concepts

Several concepts were considered for the protetype compliant idler. The predominant reasons for accepting the rubber-in-shear design or, conversely, rejecting the other designs included: (1) the attainability of the desired radial compliance, (2) the degree of simplicity in the design and (3) the level of difficulty in manufacturing. The degree of simplicity greatly influenced the expectations of durability and practicality. The various concepts that were evaluated are discussed below.

### 6.3.3.1 Sectional Idler Rips

A concept similar to the experimental compliant idler, incorporating a number of radially symmetrical, independent compliant elements and a sectional idler rim was considered. The concept was rejected because of its complexity, difficult machining operations, and expensive assembly procedures.

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#### 6.3.3.2 Thin flexible Rim/Rubber in Compression

This concept, shown in Figure 6.18, incorporates a flexible steel hoop "floated" on rubber in compression around a steel hub. The rubber compliance will be locally deformed at the point of track/rim contact, but will have less deformation on the side of the idler that is not in contact with the track.

The major two drawbacks are the risk of fatigue failure in the flexible rim and the low compliance in the rubber-in-compression element. Also, excessive point stresses in the rim could occur during track walk-off. Because the two main drawbacks appeared insurmountable, this concept was rejected.

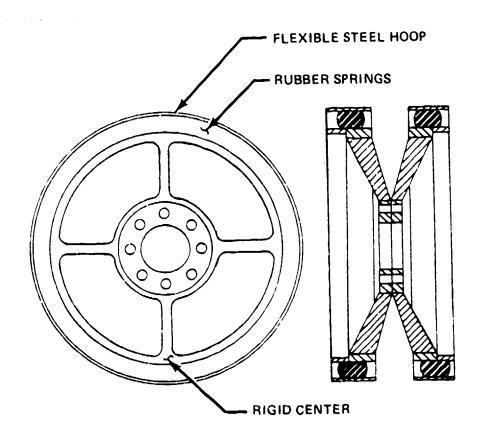


Figure 6.18 Idler Concept: Thin Flexible Rim; Rubber in Compression.

# 6.3.3.3 Thick Rigid Rim/Rubber in Compression

Figure 6.19 shows that this concept is similar to the above concept, except the floating rim is rigid. The isolators are fixed at their inner diameter to the wheel but not to the outer rim. Thus, the compliance is never placed in tension. Compressive loads are always distributed uniformly to the isolators because of the rigidity of the rim. However, the desired compliance was unattainable in this compression mode so the concept was rejected.

## 6.3.3.4 Rim of Rollers

Figure 6.20 shows a proposed idler wheel with compliant rollers acting as the wheel rim. The major advantage of this concept is that friction heating due to track shoe sliding is reduced. The disadvantages are limited compliance and complexity. Also, the roller concept might not be reliable in the required operating environments. Consequently, this design was not utilized.

## 6.3.3.5 Rigid Rim/Rubber-in-Shear

This concept was judged to be the most acceptable because it met or exceeded all of the design goals and criteria discussed in Sections 6.3.1 and 6.3.2. It was, therefore, chosen to be fully developed for prototype hardware. The assembly drawing of the design appeared earlier in Figure 6.17. Features of this design include:

- Three steel parts and two rubber compliant rings. This relatively few number of parts will contribute to a low cost production unit.
- Adaptability to production techniques. The steel parts are readily adaptable to casting or forging processes. The rubber will be fastened in place with a cyanoacrylate adhesive or vulcanization process.
- 3. Fail safe. The idler rim is held captive by the two wheels in the event of compliance failure. This would permit continued operation at increased noise levels.
- 4. Twenty-one inch diameter. This is 3.75 inches larger than the standard M113A1 idler, but will still permit the passage of debris or track throwing without jamming. Additional clearance is provided by the radial deflection allowed by the compliance.
- 5. Low rubber stresses. The maximum stress in the rubber compliances is limited to 45 psi. This is well within the recommended limit of 95 psi for 40 durameter rubber undergoing continuous rotative shear loading. Levels higher than 45 psi are not possible due to bottoming of the rim. The low levels of stress in the prototype design will contribute to long service life. (In the experimental idler, this type of rubber material was routinely stressed to 210 psi during an approximate test time of 220 miles).

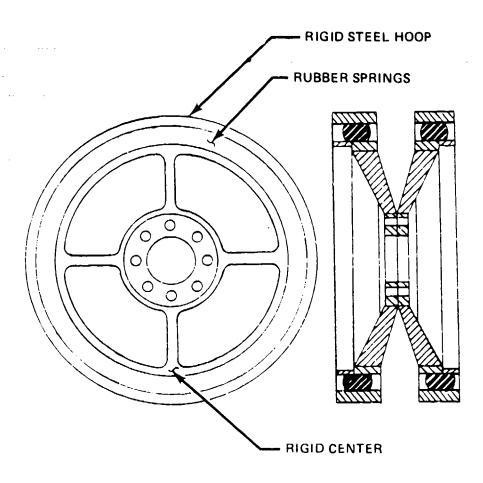


Figure 6.19 Idler Concept: Thick Rigid Rim; Rubber in Compression.

TRACK WRAPS AROUND IDLER
AND ONLY CONTACTS THE
ROLLERS

ROLLERS ARE FREE TO
ROTATE AND HAVE
RUBBER DOUGHNUTSHAPED CENTERS FOR
COMPLIANCE AND
NOISE REDUCTION

RIGID CENTER AND DISK

Figure 6.20 Idler Concept: Rim Composed of Rollers.

- 6. A very simple working action. The rubber experiences rotative shear at limited levels of stress and strain. This type of limited movement is conducive to long service life.
- 7. Overload capability. The idler was designed to withstand dynamic loads of over 15,000 lbs.
- 8. A maximum deflection of .75 inch. This will allow for noise reduction at all but the most severe of vehicle maneuvers. Shock input to the vehicle from the idler bottoming during rough terrain operation will also be greatly reduced.
- 9. Internal cut-outs to allow passage of debris drawn into the wheel by the track guides. To avoid trapping objects between opposing spokes, the standard M113A1 idler wheels are mounted with spokes staggered. Larger cut-outs would be required if this staggered arrangement was desired on the prototype idler. In either case, the base of the spokes in the rim are the means of limiting the deflection during overload conditions.
- 10. Inclined rims. The rims are inclined inward to utilize the compliance of the inner track shoe pads. The outer edges are highest and contact the inner track pads first. The inner pad is deflected most at this point. As the pad deflects, more and more of the rim contacts the rubber pad. The effect is that of an increasing spring rate shock absorber.

Another concept for the rim contour was to provide two circumferential bumps of different heights [10]. This would have produced a dual rate spring effect when contacting the inner track pad. However, the valley between the bumps could prevent a misaligned track guide from recovering. Therefore, the ramp concept was adapted.

11. Chamferred inner edges of each rim. It is known that the track is most frequently thrown inward toward the hull. The chamferred edges help the track guides to realign into the center of the idler. The exaggerated chamfer on the inboard half significantly reduces the occurrence of the track throwing problem [13].

## 6.3.4 Results

The actual prototype idler that was used for testing was fabricated from high strength steel plate and molded natural rubber. The wheel halves were machined individually but the rim was welded together from rough-machined halves, then final machined. The basic designs are compatible with forging or casting processes for high production rates. The rubber annuli were molded from a high grade, low loss, natural base rubber compound. They were attached at assembly with a cyanoacrylate adhesive. The rubber hardness that was achieved was somewhat softer than the nominal design specifications: 35A instead of 40A durometer. Noise reductions for the test prototype may consequently be slightly better than expected. Bottoming-out load capabilities will also be reduced.

## 6.3.4.1 Compliance

The calculated design spring rate for the prototype idler is 8247 lb/in. This value is for a rubber hardness of 40A durometer as required by the design. For a hardness of 35A durometer, as was achieved, the spring rate is 6927 lb/in. These values consider that the dynamic shear modulus exceeds the static modulus by 20 percent [8]. No tests were made to determine the actual level of compliance.

#### 6.3.4.2 Interior Noise Reduction of the Prototype Idler

The noise of the prototype compliant idler was measured on the idler test stand and compared to tests of the standard idler on the same stand. Track tension was 2,500 lbs in both cases.

Figure 6.21 shows A-weighted crew area noise levels of the standard and prototype idler wheels as a function of speed. Noise reductions of from 10 to 15 dB(A) were achieved. At 30 mph, the noise level was 95 dB(A); therefore an additional 3 dB(A) of noise reduction would be required to meet the idler wheel goal of 92 dB(A).

Figure 6.22 shows crew area noise spectra of the standard and prototype idler wheels. The prototype idler octave band noise levels were reduced by 6 to 20 dB in the frequency range of 63 to 8000 Hz.

For the entire vehicle at 30 mph to comply with MIL-STD-1474, Category B, the prototype idler would require an additional noise reduction of 5 dB in the 250 Hz octave hand. No further noise reduction would be required in any other octave band. This statement assumes that the combined noise of the two quieted sprockets, two quieted idlers, and ten quieted roadwheels has the same spectrum shape as the noise due to the prototype idler wheel. This assumption, though not exact, is presently necessary because the other low-noise components have not yet been developed.

#### 6.3.4.3 Exterior Noise Reduction of Prototype Idler Wheel

Figure 6.23 shows the acoustic signatures in octave hands for 30 mph operation of the standard and prototype idler wheels, as measured on the FMC test stand.

A reduction of 3 to 6 dB was measured at frequencies between 250 and 2000 Hz. The actual signature reduction was probably greater and cannot be measured accurately on the present test stand. This is suspected because the measured interior noise reduction in these octave bands is 11 to 16 dB, which is far greater than the 3 to 6 dB exterior reduction. As the interior and exterior noise reduction of hull-radiated noise must be identical, the measured exterior prototype idler noise must contain noises from other sources; the likely candidates are the test stand assembly and direct radiated noise from the track, sprocket and idler. A listening test suggests that the test stand and its drive sprocket are the sources.

A - Weighted Sound Pressure Level  $\mbox{\c A} - M_{\mu} \mbox{\c M} \mbox{\c } \mbox{\c A} \mbox{\c A} \mbox{\c A} \mbox{\c B} \mbox{\c A}$ 

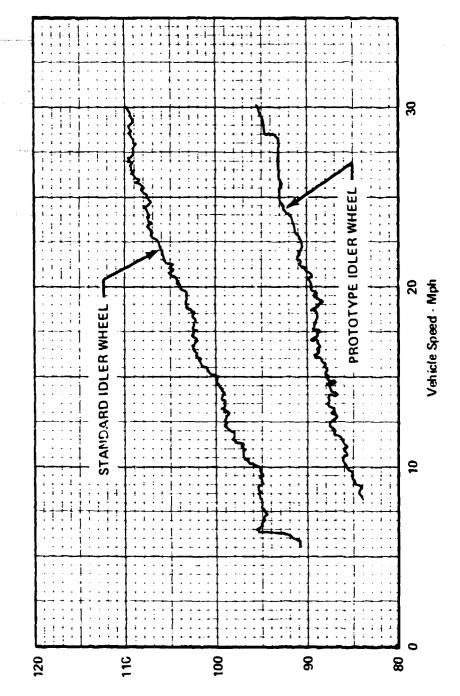
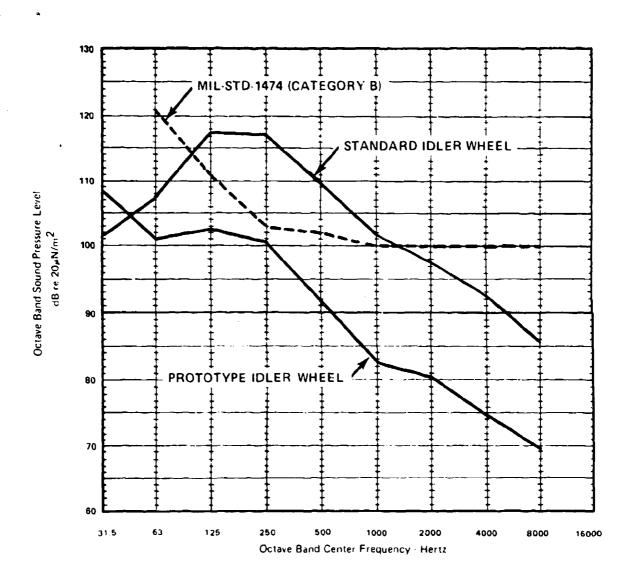


Figure 6.21 Interior Noise Reduction with the Prototype Compliant Idler Wheel.



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Figure 6.22 Interior Noise Spectra Comparison for the Standard and Prototype Idler Wheels.

#### IDLER INDUCED NOISE

- A -----Standard idler, 30 mph, 105 dB(C), 88 dB(A)
- B ———— Prototype idler, 30 mph, 97 dB(Flat), 85 dB(A)

#### ENGINE EXHAUST NOISE

- C ---- Maximum noise levels in 2-3 gear, 600 to 2000 RPM, accelerator fully depressed, brakes "on", standard M113Al production vehicle.
- D Same, but for TARADCOM low-signature demonstration M113Al vehicle. (Data taken at 50 feet, 6 dB then added for distance compensation)

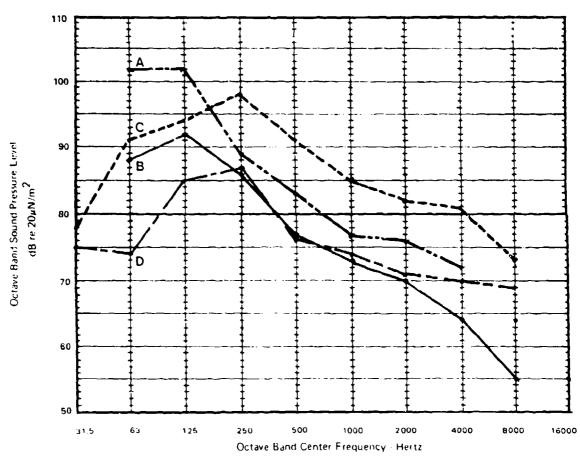


Figure 6.23 Exterior Noise Spectra of M113A1 Standard Idler Pair, Prototype Idler and M113A1 Exhaust at 25 Feet to the Left of the Hull.

Although the exact acoustic signature of the prototype idler is apparently too low to be measured on the test stand, it can still be concluded that the exterior idler signature has been reduced to well below the maximum exhaust noise of a standard M113A1, and thus would not lead to detection. The present data are not adequate to determine if the actual acoustic signature of the prototype idler wheel could lead to vehicle detection more readily than exhaust noise from TARADCOM's low-signature M113A1.

# 6.3.4.4 Durability of the Prototype Idler

A limited amount of test mileage was accumulated on the prototype idler during noise measurement tests. It is estimated that a total of about 31 miles were completed with the idler operated on the test stand at various track tensions up to 2,500 lb. Of the four bond surfaces that exist, three were in excellent condition but one was peeling away at the inner diameter and peeling slightly at the outer diameter. Apparently, poor assembly efforts were at fault because all bonds have endured the same operating conditions and environment. Rubber overlap at steel edges was not a factor in this failure. You appreciable wear was observed on any of the steel components mainly because of good track alignment and no occurrence of idler "bottoming-out".

Based upon earlier fatigue testing [4] and upon examination of the experimental idler paddle bonds, this prototype idler could easily provide over 2,000 miles of service life, excluding the possibility of a foreign object causing a catastrophic failure of a rubber element. The annuli are, of course, the weakest links in the assembly. The main hazard involving the rubber is the possibility of a hard or sharp object becoming jammed between the rubber and a solid moving steel component. Cut-outs near the inner diameter and the small clearances at the rim will minimize the threat of debris damage. Furthermore, considerable wear of the rubber material could be sustained before failure occurs. Actual vehicle durability tests would be the only means of determining accurate field service life expectations.

The second weakest link in the assembly is the rubber-to-steel bond. The experimental and prototype idler wheels employed a cyanoacrylate adhesive. This adhesive proved to be the most desirable in laboratory fatigue tests. Even though this adhesive loses up to fifty percent of its shear strength when exposed to water, the bond shear strength exceeds that of the rubber by a factor of up to sixty. A vulcanized bond has been proposed as an equally reliable means of attaching the rubber. However, the configuration of the prototype idler might prove to be too restrictive for the molds required by the vulcanizing process.

Durability of the steel wheel halves and rim is expected to exceed that of the standard M113 idler wheel. This is because of the reduced

impacts that will be experienced. Excessive wear, of course, could result if catastrophic rubber failure occurs. Nevertheless, these parts could probably be reused several times with new rubber annuli. Rebuild cycles could be predicted with field testing.

# 6.3.4.5 Conclusions and Recommendations

The prototype compliant idler wheel demonstrated a substantial reduction in idler generated interior noise. Although the design goal of 92 dB(A) was not met (95 dB(A) was achieved), development of the prototype idler wheel was a very successful step in reducing the M113A1 vehicle interior noise. If the sprocket and roadwheel induced noise can be reduced by as much as was done with the prototype idler, subsequent hull modifications and/or improvements in the compliant suspension members should enable the interior noise goal of 100 dB(A) to be met. Although field testing of the prototype idler wheel has not been conducted, because of the rugged idler wheel construction and conservative rubber stress levels, service life is estimated to be at least 2000 miles.

Future compliant idler work should include the following areas:

- 1. Investigate design modifications necessary to make the compliant idler wheel completely compatible with standard manufacturing techniques to reduce unit manufacturing costs. This might include replacement of the glued rubber to steel bonds used in the prototype idler with vulcanized-in-place rubber parts.
- 2. Investigate design modifications to facilitate field replacement of failed compliant elements.
- 3. Conduct a field test program to determine the durability and service life of the compliant idler wheel.

#### 7. EXPERIMENTAL SPROCKET CARRIER DEVELOPMENT

#### 7.1 Conceptual Approach

Based upon the successful demonstration of noise reduction on the compliant idler, similar concepts were extended to the sprocket. The sprocket presents a greater challenge for noise reduction than the idler because of the necessity to transmit high torque loads through the compliances.

As with the experimental idler, the experimental sprocket is a tool which will aid in the design of the prototype sprocket. The design and testing of the experimental sprocket was intended to address the following areas:

1. Exploration of the constraints and limitations involved in compliant sprocket design.

- Assessment of the practical amount of torsional deflection that should be allowed before lockout
- 3. Determination of the effects of both torsional and radial loading on the compliant elements, including heat buildup
- 4. Determination of the effects of axial deflections and axial tilting, especially with regard to the overload mechanism
- Selection of the balance between torsional stiffness and radial compliance for required torque transmission and optimal noise reduction
- 6. Selection of a compliant material
- 7. Magnitude of expected interior noise reduction
- 8. Assessment of the effect on exterior noise
- 9. Estimate of durability

## 7.2 Design Goals

The goals in the design of the experimental compliant sprocket were:

- 1. A-weighted noise level of 95 dB or less
- 2. Ability to be tested on the test stand or on an operating vehicle
- 3. Service life of 100 miles or more
- 4. Fail-safe features to maintain an operational sprocket and prevent a thrown track, in the event of compliance failure
- Ability to transmit the torques encountered in typical vehicle manegivers
- Ability to lock out the compliance during the transmission of very high torque loading

# 7.3 Design Criteria

To achieve the above goals, the following criteria were used to guide design decisions:

- 1. Space limits: The sprocket shall be designed so that no changes to the hull are required on the M113A1 test vehicle.
- 2. Existing hardware: The sprocket must fit on to the existing M113A1 final drive assembly.

- 3. Pitch: The pitch of the sprocket shall not be changed from that on the M113Al vehicle. This dictates a 10 tooth sprocket of the same diameter as the M113Al sprocket.
- 4. Rubber Stress: To ensure adequate life of the rubber compliances, stresses in the material shall not exceed recommended limits for rotative dynamic loading, e.g., 75 psi for 30 durometer rubber when shear strain is 225% [8].
- 5. Static load that will be constantly imposed on the sprocket due to common track tension may be as high as 9,000 lb. radially. If an M113A1 is parked on a 60% slope, track tension may impart loads up to 11,200 lb radially and 9,156 ft-lb. torsionally.
- 6. Dynamic loads: The fluctuating loads imposed on the sprocket during severe steering maneuvers may be as high as 5,600 lb. radially and 2,570 ft-lb torsionally [12]. This occurs during hilly cross-country maneuvers.
- 7. Torque: The maximum torque that the sprocket must transmit is 11,300 ft-1b at an acceleration of up to 1 g. This occurs during panic skid stops [14].

## 7.4 Design Concepts

Development of the experimental sprocket initially focused on the compliant mechanism. A complex rubber-in-shear system was finally chosen after other concepts proved impractical. Design of the overload torque device was then pursued. A ten-degree torsional deflection was used for a torque wind-up limit. This ten-degree angular deflection was considered appropriate for both long-life stress levels in the rubber compliances and workable clearances to allow isolation of the sprocket during usual operations. The extremely restrictive size envelope was the major obstacle throughout the whole design effort.

In the following subsections, the various compliance concepts that were evaluated are discussed. A description of the final design, including the overload torque mechanism, is presented in Section 7.4.4.2.

#### 7.4.1 Rubber in Radial Compression and Torsional Shear

The phrase "rubber in compression" has been used in this report whenever a design concept employed rubber in radial compression. Almost all of the concepts provided torque transmission via the shear mode. Various concepts using rubber in compression were compared by evaluating predicted performance characteristics for similarily sized structures. Trends in performance changes were observed with certain modifications and their particular advantages were investigated. No effort was made to systematically identify or categorize these trends.

Procedures for predicting performances of the rubber-in-compression concepts were basically the same, so only the description of the first concept will go into any detail.

## 7.4.1.1 Solid Pair of Rubber Rings

The hasic concept for rubber in compression involved a pair of solid rubber rings. The individual ring size was chosen to be compatible with standard M113A1 sprocket dimensions: 15.125" 0.0. x 12.375" I.D. x 3.625" wide. The rings would be press-fit between the inner and outer hoops for a ten percent preset compression. Each ring was to be bonded to an inner hoop but not to an outer hoop. This avoided placing any rubber in tension. Torque would be transmitted at the outer mating-part line by friction. This concept is illustrated in Figure 7.1.

To evaluate this design, it was assumed that the compression loads were reacted by an equivalent flat block of rubber. This equivalent block was of the same thickness as the ring but with flat dimensions equal to the projected area of the ring inner diameter. The shape factor, rubber hardness and simulated dimensions were then used to approximate the total sprocket radial compliance. The torque capability was predicted from the ring dimensions.

This solid rubber ring concept proved unacceptable because excessively high radial compliances were predicted whenever acceptable torque capabilities were found. Conversely, acceptable radial compliances occured only with excessively low torque capability. This negative relationship between the two desired performance characteristics could not be reversed by any change in basic rubber material.

Other practical difficulties were anticipated with this concept. First, the task of press fitting these large flat rings between the two hoops would be difficult. Second, the probability was low that the total outer surface of the rubber would provide enough friction to actually transmit the predicted torque output.

#### 7.4.1.2 Directionally Modified Compliance

The addition of circumferential holes or radial holes were two modifications intended to improve the performance of the rubber in compression concept. The objectives of these two approaches was to decrease radial compliance while maintaining a high torsional shear strength. Each modification employed a pair of rubber rings that were assembled from rectangular blocks with holes through them.

The individual blocks were as thick as the solid ring and as long as the width of the ring. Orientation of the holes determined whether they were circumferential or radial. The blocks were to be press-fit side-by-side between the inner and outer hoops.

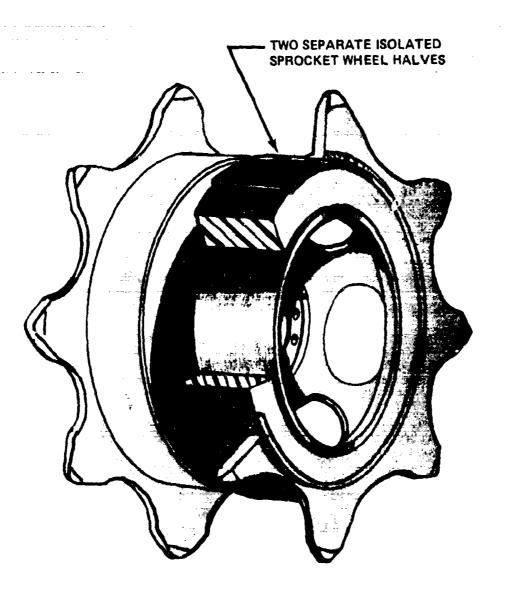


Figure 7.1 Sprocket Concept: Solid Rubber Ring in Compression.

As with the solid rings, the radial compliance was assumed to be provided by an equivalent block of rubber, as thick as the ring and of an area equal to the projected inner diameter. All blocks contributed to torque. Figure 7.2 shows an assembled modified rubber ring with circumferential holes. The radial hole modification would have looked similar.

Various sizes and patterns of holes in both directions were investigated. However, no modification of either type resulted in sufficiently low radial compliance while maintaining a high torsional stiffness. Only round holes were considered but other shapes did not seem promising. Consequently, rubber in compression was considered impractical.

### 7.4.1.3 Three Concentric Ring Pairs

One of the original design concepts proposed for the experimental sprocket involved three pairs of rubber rings in compression. This design is illustrated in Figure 7.3. The large pair of rings provide most of the compliance and torque capability. The other two ring pairs provide additional compliance.

The fact that this concept could not achieve the desired spring rates proved to be the major drawback. Other difficulties included complexity and instability. The concept also depended upon an eleven tooth sprocket, larger than the M113A1 sprocket. This was considered undesirable since performance and load characteristics of the complete vehicle power train would be altered.

# 7.4.1.4 Rubber in Radial Compression and Radial Shear

Another original concept combined the ideas of using rubber in compression and rubber in shear. The proposed design was to have four pairs of rubber rings; a large and a small set in shear and a set of soft and hard pairs in compression. This configuration is shown in Figure 7.4. To accomodate the complex structure a larger than standard sprocket was again proposed.

The major drawbacks to this concept were the complexity, the large size and the inability to obtain both the desired compliance and torsional stiffness.

# 7.4.2 <u>Compliant Fabric Isolator</u>

An unconventional fabric isolator system was another proposed possibility. The fabric weave pattern was to have strong "threads" of various compliances, woven in three different directions. As assembled, one set of threads would extend in a radial direction, from the inner hoop to the outer hoop. The other two sets of threads would form opposing spiral arcs, stretching from the inner hoop, around and outward to the outer hoop. All of the threads would be secured at both ends.

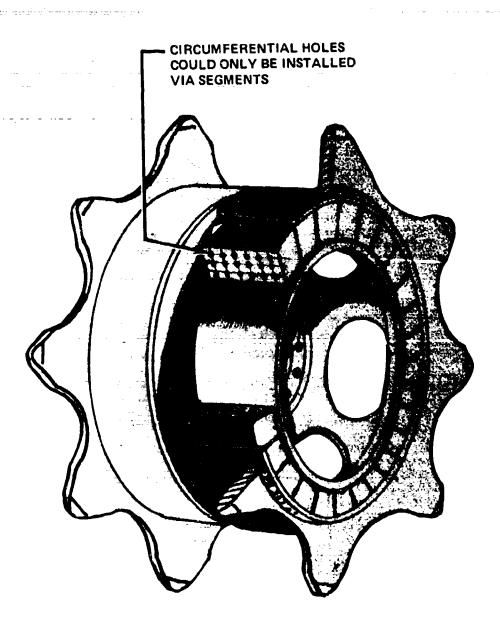


Figure 7.2 Sprocket Concept: Segmented Rubber Ring in Compression with Circumferential Holes.

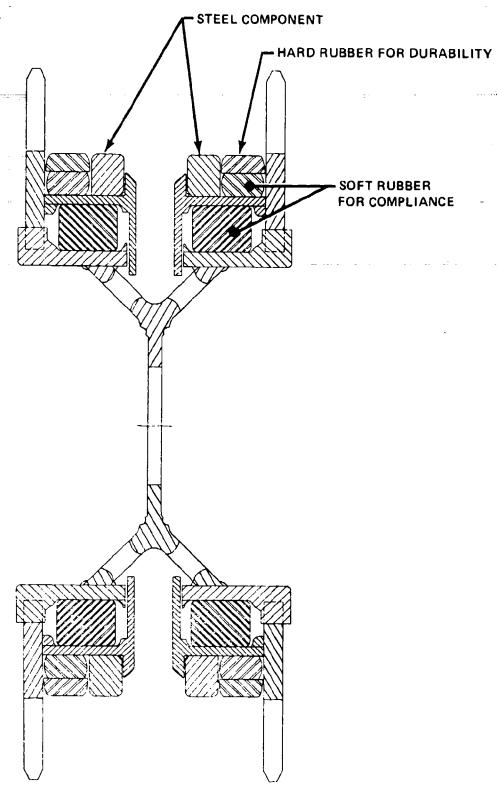


Figure 7.3 Sprocket Concept: Three Rubber Ring Pairs in Compression.

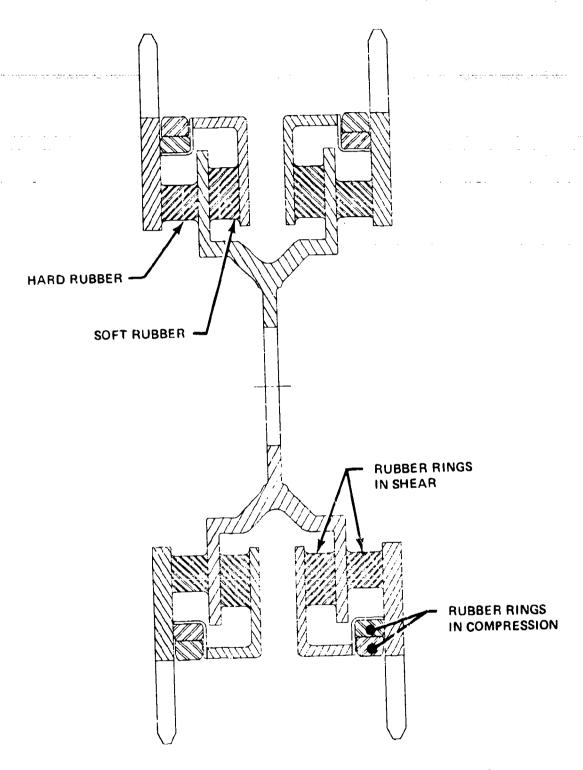


Figure 7.4 Sprocket Concept: Rubber in Both Radial Compression and Radial Shear.

The sum of the tensile compliances for the radial threads, being stretched in one direction, would have provided the total sprocket radial compliance and strength. The spiral arc threads would have combined to provide torsional stiffness in either direction.

The configuration is shown in Figure 7.5. The cross section shows each type of thread as a different layer when, in fact, they would be interwoven.

This concept was not pursued becaase it would have required excessive research and experimentation, and therefore, was unpredictable at this stage.

### 7.4.3 Overload Gear with Rubber Separators in Compression

One sprocket concept proposed the use of rubber segments that were encased by steel on two sides to provide resistance to radial and torsional forces. The configuration is shown in Figure 7.6.

This concept was not seriously investigated because the operating deflections for desired compliances would have been excessive when related to the small size of the individual rubber elements. Design complexity, fatigue, instability, and wear were also considered to be major drawbacks.

## 7.4.4 Rubber in Shear

The rubber in shear concept involved pairs of flat rubber rings similar to those used in the prototype idler. In the sprocket application, they not only provided radial compliance but torsional stiffness as well. The contradictory relationship between minimizing radial compliance while maximizing torsional stiffness was again encountered. A smaller ring had the beneficial effect of reducing radial compliance to desired levels but it also had the negative effect of reducing the moment arm and, thereby, the torsional strength. Similar contradictory relationships were found when modifications were made in the areas of size, hardness, stress and strain.

#### 7.4.4.1 Single and Double Pairs of Annuli

In the study of single and double pairs of rubber annuli, acceptable levels of performance and durability could only be obtained with oversized designs. At the larger sizes, desired workable deflections produced excessive stresses and strains. Considerable effort was expended to avoid more complex configurations. However, no variation of rubber strength, size, or shape was found to be practical. Low radial compliances could easily be designed but compatible torque capability only increased with size or number of annuli. The only recourse was to increase the number of compliant elements.

# ONLY THOSE THREADS IN TENSION ARE ACTIVE

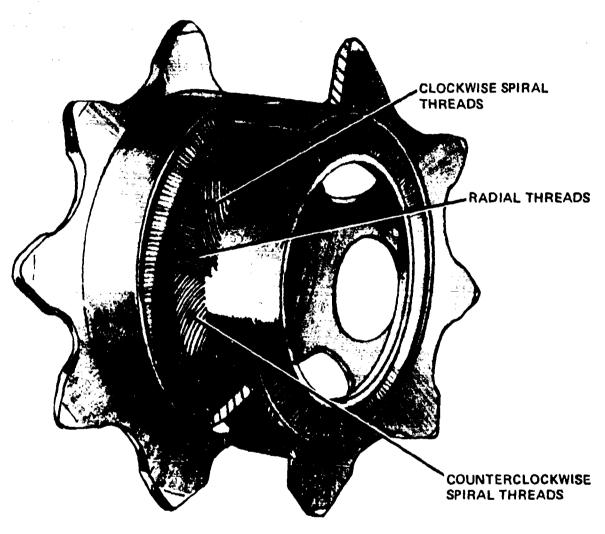


Figure 7.5 Sprocket Concept: Fabric Isolator.

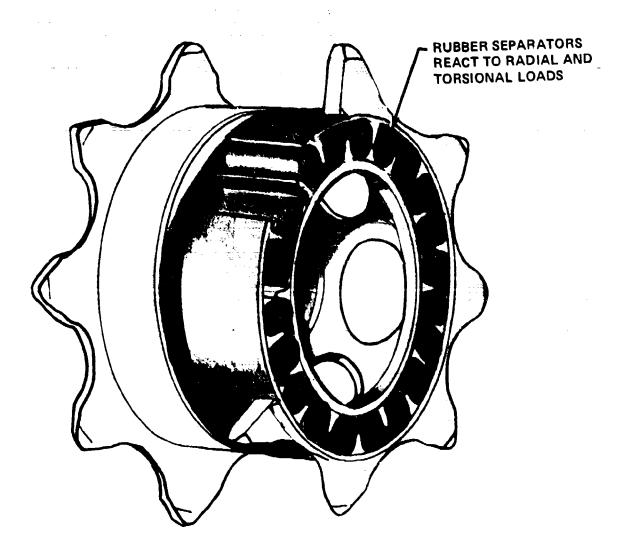


Figure 7.6 Sprocket Concept: Overload Gear with Rubber Separators in Compression.

## 7.4.4.2 Triple Annuli Pairs

PA set of three pairs of rubber annuli was found to provide the best performance characteristics within the size and stress constraints. The final design is shown in Figure 7.7. The other assembly components and the torque overload device are also shown. A photograph of the experimental sprocket mounted on the test stand is shown in Figure 7.8. Each rubber annuli is attached, at one surface, to the inner steel hoop and, at the other surface, to the outer steel hoop. The attachment is made via the inner and outer steel supports which are welded to their respective hoops. A preset compression of twenty percent is put into the middle pairs. The preset compression improves fatigue life. The original means of fastening the supports was by blind rivets, but since availability was a problem, welds were used.

The outer hoop supports a modified M113Al sprocket wheel and an internal disk with large spline teeth for overload. The main support is holted to the hub which provides mating spline teeth for the sprocket component. Each sprocket wheel is floating on the compliant structure during normal operation. There is no metal contact in the internal spline during normal conditions because the design provides enough backlash for up to ten degrees of angular deflection in either direction. Maximum radial deflections of one-half inch are also limited by the mechanical stops incorporated into the overload device.

The standard M113Al sprocket cushions were mounted on the outer hoop before the halves were assembled to the hub. No fastening feature was included for the cushions. A proposed large hose clamp could have been installed adjacent to the cushions if necessary to stop lateral or rotational movement.

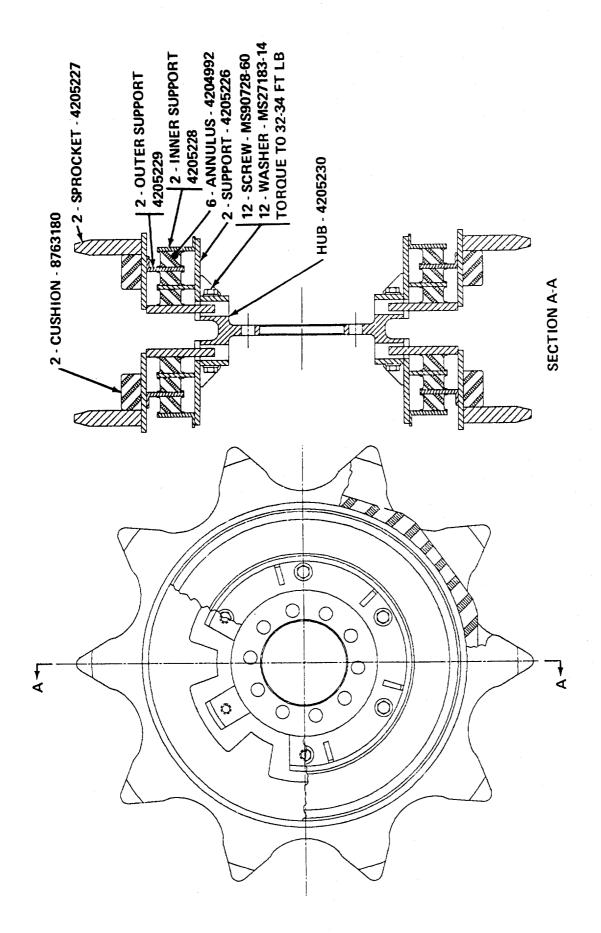
### 7.5 RESULTS

#### 7.5.1 Compliance

The calculated radial spring rate for the experimental compliant sprocket is 17,538 lb/in. This value was calculated for a rubber hardness of 40A durometer with a dynamic shear modulus 20% greater than the static shear modulus. No tests were made to measure the actual compliance achieved in the experimental sprocket.

#### 7.5.2 Interior Noise Reduction of the Experimental Sprocket

The experimental sprocket noise was measured on the FMC test stand as was done for the idler wheels, however, additional measurements were taken at the driver's position. The sprocket was driven by the track and was freewheeling [16]. No torque loading was involved.



Rubber in Shear. for Experimental Development and Test. Sprocket Concept: This design chosen Figure 7.7

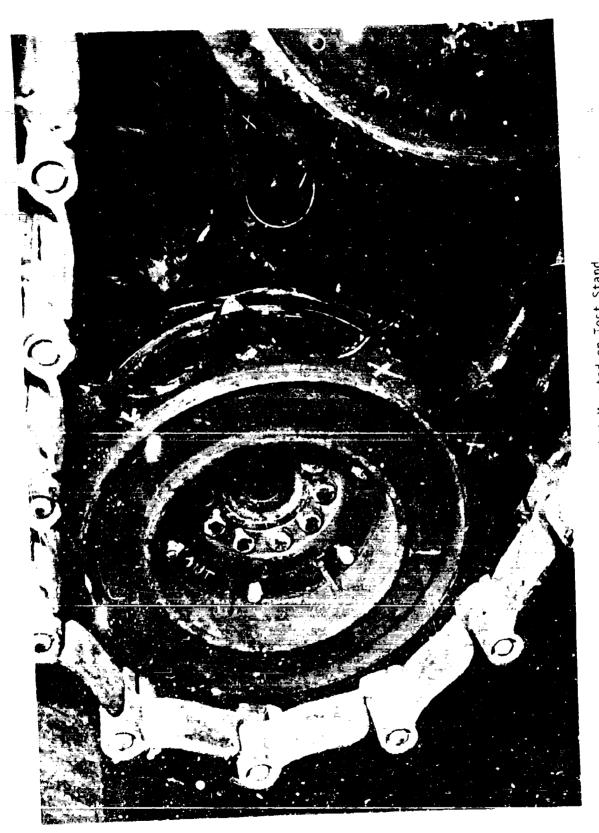


Figure 7.8 Experimental Sprocket Mounted on Test Stand.

Figure 7.9 shows the crew area A-weighted noise levels as a function of speed. This curve presents the best noise reduction obtained. The noise levels were not steady, but cyclic with track strand revolution. This unsteady noise level at constant speed was due to an unexpected metal-on-metal clatter which is discussed in Section 7.5.4. A-weighted noise reductions are 4 to 11 dB. For a sprocket to meet a goal of 92 dB(A) in the crew area, at least 11 dB(A) of additional noise reduction will be required. This is also true of the driver's area, Figure 7.10; at 30 mph the driver's compartment noise level is the same as in the crew space: 103 dB(A).

Figures 7.11 and 7.12 show octave band spectra of the standard and experimental sprockets. Noise levels are reduced by 1 to 11 dB between 63 and 8000 Hertz, and an average of 10 dB in the important 125, 250 and 500 Hertz octave bands. Considerable additional noise reduction will be required for the sprocket to be 7 dB below MIL-STD-1474 Category B. Achieving that degree of noise reduction is necessary for the entire vehicle to be below the Category B noise limits.

# 7.5.3 Exterior Noise Signature of the Experimental Sprocket

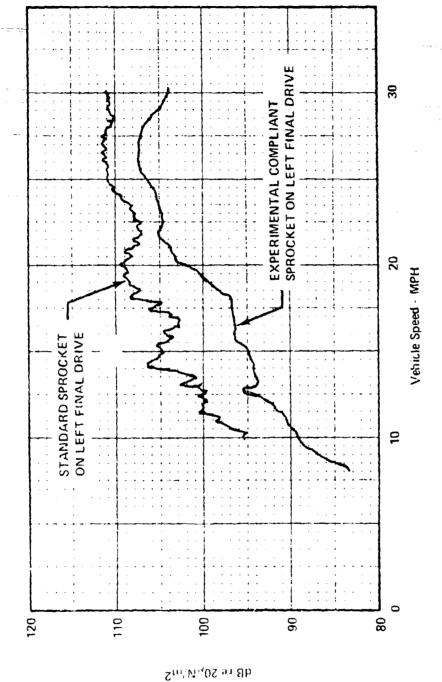
Exterior noise levels for the experimental and standard sprockets are shown in Figures 7.13 and 7.14. Because of the unexpected metal-on-metal clatter that was discovered, the exterior noise signature actually increased. The clatter was cyclic and closely associated with track strand revolution. When the track was run in reverse, however, this clatter was greatly reduced. The reduction in clatter may have been due to improved alignment of sprocket teeth caused by the orientation of the decagon sprocket cushion, or may have been due to a change in the complex dynamic interaction of the track with the sprocket. The cushion fit snugly to the outer hoop and maintained its original assembly position for forward speed operation. A 1.4 degree rotation was observed after reverse operation.

A detailed investigation of the clatter problem follows.

# 7.5.4. <u>Experimental Sprocket Clatter</u>

The unexpected metal-on-metal clatter that occurred with the experimental sprocket prevented achievement of the significant steady noise reductions which were predicted. Investigation of the problem included operational observations, dimensional and alignment comparisons, and detailed analysis of recorded noise data.

Initial test observations with a Strobotac and sound level meter provided no significant explanations. Interior noise level variations did not precisely follow the cyclic clatter throughout the octave bands. The track appeared to always align toward the outboard side of the sprocket. Correspondingly, each track shoe showed fresh wear marks in an inboard corner of the sprocket tooth cut-outs. This



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Noise Reduction in the Grew Compartment due to the Experimental Compliant Sprocket. Figure 7.9

STANDARD SPROCKET ON LEFT FINAL DRIVE

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EXPERIMENTAL COMPLIANT SPROCKET

ON LEFT FINAL DRIVE

8

20

2

8

Vehicle Speed - MPH



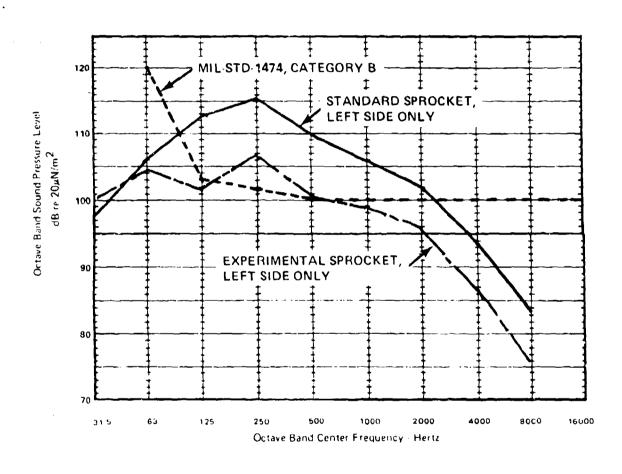


Figure 7.11 Crew Area Hoise Spectra of Standard and Experimental Sprocket Wheels at 30 mph.

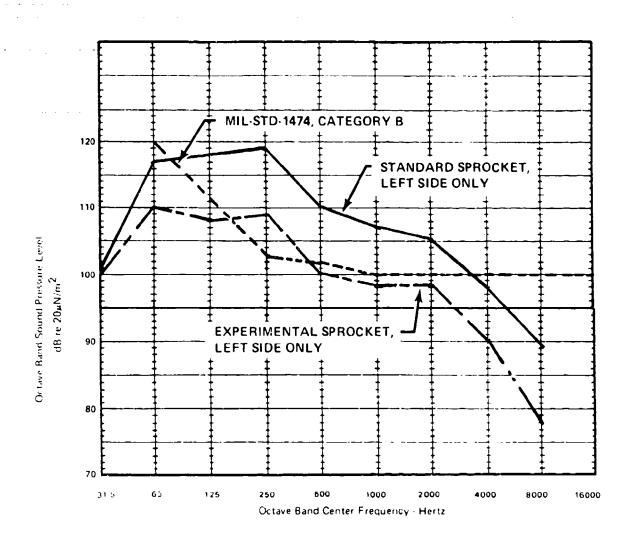


Figure 7.12 Driver's Compartment Noise Spectra of Standard and Experimental Sprokect Wheels at 30 mph.

A Weighted Sound Pressure Level  $S_{rm}/M \mu \Omega S$  of (A) Bb

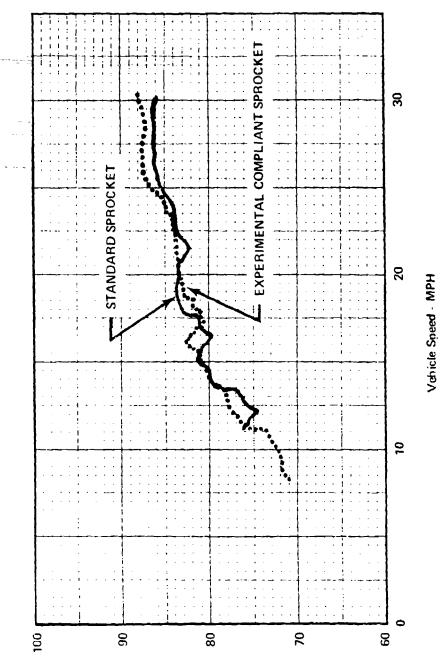
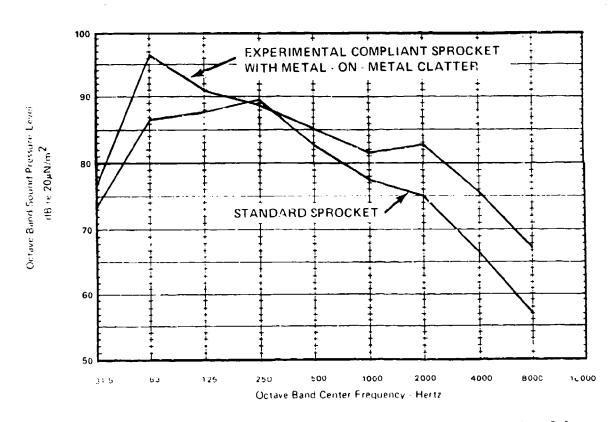


Figure 7.13 Exterior Moise Levels 25 Feet to the Right of the Vehicle Due to the Left Sprocket Only.



**《通行》就是"我们是不是不是不是,我们就是这里的,我们是这里的,我们就是这个人,是是你是是是什么人?"** 

Figure 7.14 Exterior Noise Spectra at 30 mph due to the Left Sprocket Only. Measured 25 feet to the Right of the Hull.

indicates that both the side and driven edge of the sprocket teeth were in contact with the shoes. Wear on the inboard sides of both sprockets was evident. Some outboard sides were scraped whereas others were untouched. Finally, no significant torsional vibration was observed.

Dimensional measurements taken while the experimental sprocket was still mounted showed that assembled dimensions agreed closely with the standard sprocket. Also, misalignment with the track strand was only slight: 1/4 inch difference in offset from the hull between the test stand drive sprocket and the compliant sprocket under test. Systematic rotation of the experimental sprocket revealed that the teeth varied only .048 inch at the most in sideways offset. No significantly odd-shaped shoe or set of shoes was readily apparent on the track strand itself. Finally, disassembly of the experimental sprocket showed that no metal-to-metal contact was made at any point in the overload gear mechanism.

Analysis of the recorded data was conducted to evaluate the possibility of any consistent relationship between the clatter and a particular section of the track. Steady-state interior crew noise at 30-mph was plotted on time charts for both the experimental and standard sprockets. At 30-mph and with 57 track shoes per track strand, the following cycles are present:

- 0.114 seconds per sprocket revolution
- 0.65 seconds per track strand revolution
- 6.48 seconds per one sprocket tooth one track shoe interaction

The noise-time charts showed a somewhat random cyclic noise level variation for the experimental sprocket. As previously discovered, this variation was not consistent throughout the noise spectrum. In some octave bands, cyclic sound pressure level variations corresponded to the one tooth - one shoe frequency (57 sprocket revolutions per ten track strand revolutions). This noise variation, however, accounted for only about thirty percent of the total variations apparent in a particular octave band time history. The association between the noise variation and track strand revolution was only observed during exterior listening tests.

In contrast to the experimental sprocket, high frequency time history plots for the standard sprocket revealed a definite cyclic variation of noise levels with each track strand revolution. Total variation of the magnitude of interior noise levels was about the same for the two types of sprocket wheels.

Since the analysis of recorded data was inconclusive, the experimental sprocket was reassembled and mounted on the test stand for more operational observation. Attention was focused on both the sprocket itself and the test stand system as a whole. A consistent sideways rolling motion of the test stand hull was discovered, which corresponded to twice the frequency of the track strand rotation. Both vertical and nonsinusoidal wave motions of the track were observed to transverse correspond to the track strand rotational frequency. The wave motions produce considerable axial and radial forces on the sprocket. Each track strand revolution included three waves, one of which produced a significantly stronger downward impulse. Thus, it appears that the test stand itself is producing strong impulses on the sprocket that are associated with the frequency of track strand revolution. Rocking of the test stand hull intensifies the axial forces on the sprocket Of course, the experimental sprocket is compliant in radial directions but relatively stiff in the axial direction, so side impacts are efficiently transmitted into the hull as interior noise.

Reasons for greater exterior clatter noise with the experimental sprocket, as opposed to the standard sprocket, are not fully understood. The increased compliance of the new sprocket may amplify the wave dynamics of the track strand and thereby cause greater clatter. The problem may also be due to the relatively low inertial mass of the experimental sprocket which might allow the sprocket to resonate.

Further testing will be performed on the experimental sprocket, including operation on paved track. The fact that two catenary track strands (upper and lower) are free to interact with no influence of the ground is not representative of actual vehicle operation. This and other test stand influences (vehicle rocking, etc.) must be eliminated for a meaningful evaluation of the experimental sprocket.

# 7.5.5 Durability

It was estimated that about 80 miles of free spinning test stand operation has been completed with the experimental sprocket. Most of this test service was at a track tension of 2500 lb, at 30 mph, and with some peculiar track dynamics occuring, as discussed in Section 7.5.4. No torque loads were included during these tests. No significant wear or damage was noted during this short service life except for that associated with the clatter problem. The sprocket tooth and track shoe wear patterns which occurred during the clatter may not continue after the peculiar track dynamics of the test stand are eliminated. Consequently, durability predictions for the compliant experimental sprocket are drawn from knowledge of the standard M113A1 sprocket performance record and from knowledge gained during the idler development program.

As with the prototype idler, the weakest part of the experimental sprocket is considered to be the rubber annuli. Results of the idler testing program can be extrapolated to predict that rubber annuli in this application will provide over 2,000 miles of service life if they are not subjected to severe damage caused by foreign objects. In the present design, hazard of damaye from foreign objects is of concern at only two areas: (1) the exposed outer diameter of the exterior pair of annuli and (2) the partially exposed inner diameter of the inner pair of annuli, near the overload spline gear mechanism (Figure 7.7). All other surfaces of the rubber annuli are enclosed. The exposed outer diameters are expected to be self-purging. The second area, near the spline gear, will be exposed to small sized debris which may not be so readily purged. Future design studies should investigate this potential problem.

The next weakest link in the design is the rubber-to-steel bond. The experimental sprocket employed a cyanoacrylate adhesive, as did both the experimental and prototype idlers. No failures have occured with this sprocket and no points of possible failure initiation have been observed. However, vulcanizing is a preferable bonding method for production. Future design studies should investigate if the supports and rubber annuli could be vulcanized together in a separate subassembly. This would permit removal of the molds after vulcanization is complete, which is not possible with the present design.

The steel components of the experimental sprocket are expected to have a service life of well over 2000 miles of operation with the capability to withstand frequent overloading. Catastrophic failure of the rubber elements and continued failure mode operation could cause severe damage to the overload system. During normal compliant operation, only the sprocket teeth will be exposed to any significant wear. This component is made from the standard M113Al sprocket which is a proven durable item. During overload operation, only limited wear will be experienced by the spline gear, even considering the sliding tooth action which results. This is because overload operation only transmits that component of an excessive torque or radial load to the spline gears which is not first taken up in the compliant elements. The long durability expectations for this sprocket under these conditions is further substantiated by the fact that the compliant sprocket wheel subassemblies are symmetrical and may be reversed to wear both faces of the sprocket and gear teeth equally. During failure mode operation, when the rubber rings fail completely, severely violent action will occur. A sliding, impacting load action will be experienced by not only the overload spline teeth but also by the sprocket teeth themselves. Single tooth loading will place high loads on the spline teeth which are designed with a factor of safety of only about two in this experimental configuration. Damage to the overload mechanism may render this system irrepairable, depending upon the duration and severity of failure mode operation.

Durability of the central area which provides clearance for the track guides is expected to be very good. Because the sprocket teeth maintain a lateral alignment of the track shoes, no contact between the track guide and sprocket will occur at this point. Foreign objects have less of a tendency to be drawn up into the sprocket than into the idler. Ingestion of foreign objects into the sprocket could normally only occur during reverse operation which is infrequent and slow, also the track guides would dislodge an object when forward operation is resumed. No cutouts are provided for debris in this area, because there are no structures in which foreign matter may become entangled.

## 7.6 Recommendations

The experimental sprocket design is considered capable of fulfilling all performance criteria, however, it is complex and does not fully meet the noise reduction goals. The complexity seems unavoidable with the present severely-restrictive size envelope. The limited noise reduction may be a problem of test conditions, and not necessarily the design itself. Consequently, recommendations for improvement include some additional testing with improved equipment.

There are two recommendations for improving the basic design of the experimental sprocket: (1) simplify and (2) toughen. A simpler design is needed to reduce initial cost, as well as improve reliability. The experimental design employs mild steel material designed, in some areas, with factors of safety of two. Future hardware may require harder or stronger designs. The overload spline gear mechanism, for example, is designed of mild steel using a factor of safety of about two. This is acceptable for experimentation but not for reliable failure mode operation. Other areas were similarly designed for expedient completion and with the knowledge that experimental operations would not be as severe as actual field use.

Before further testing is conducted, consideration should be given to the test stand. The significance of track strand misalignment, test hull instability, and track strand dynamics must be adderstood before more measurements are made.

Further, the experimental sprocket must be tested underway to determine the effects of the compliance on various vehicle manuevers, including high speed turns, pivot steering, hill climbing, etc. Sprocket tooth disengagement and/or track throwing are potential problems. Also, the dynamic effects on the upper track strand resulting from both a compliant idler and sprocket need to be investigated.

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#### APPENDIX A

## THEORY FOR HULL VIBRATIONAL RESPONSE AND INTERIOR SOUND LEVELS

The generalized theory for the prediction of the vibrational response of an arbitrarily-shaped structure bounding an enclosed cavity, and for the development of an acoustic field within the cavity, has been developed in various forms [Al,A2]. One such approach, termed the "power flow approach", has been developed by BBN [A3] and is summarized below in a form suitable to the present problem.

Figure A.l shows the general situation of a distribution of excitation forces and radiated pressure fields which act on the structure as it vibrates. The structure is represented by its set of independent normal modes (uncoupled and orthogonal), so that the total displacement of the structure  $w(\bar{x},\omega)$  at a point  $\bar{x}=(x,y)$  on it is given by

$$w(\bar{x},\omega) = \sum_{r}^{\alpha} \bar{\xi}_{r} \psi_{r}(\bar{x})$$
(A.1)

where  $\bar{\zeta}_r = \bar{\xi}_r(\omega)$  is the displacement of the rth normal mode. The wall response to the forces and pressure fields acting is found as [A3]

$$w(\overline{x},\omega) = \int_{\overline{x}} G(\overline{x}/\overline{x}';\omega) \left[ p^{\circ}(\overline{x}') - p_{\underline{i}}(\overline{x}') \right] d\overline{x}'$$
(A.2)

where the integration is over the structural surface area and the structure's Greens function is given by

$$G(\bar{x}, \bar{x}'; \omega) = \sum_{s} \frac{\psi_{s}(\bar{x})\psi_{s}(\bar{x}')}{M_{s}Y_{s}}$$

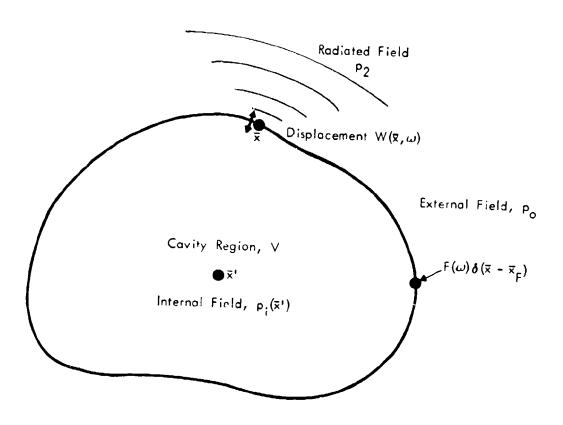


Figure A.1 Cavity Nomenclature.

Here  $\psi_{\text{S}},~M_{\text{S}}$  and  $Y_{\text{S}}$  are the mode shape, generalized mass and admittance function for the sth structural mode.

$$v_s = \omega_s^2 \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\omega}{\omega_s} \right)^2 - 1 \eta_s \right]$$

The interior acoustic pressure field  $p_{\frac{1}{2}}(\bar{x}^{\frac{1}{2}})$  due to structural vibration is given by

$$p_{1}(\overline{x}^{\dagger}) = -\rho\omega^{2} \int_{\overline{x}} G_{p}(\overline{x}/\overline{x}^{\dagger};\omega) w(\overline{x}) d\overline{x}$$

$$= -\rho\omega^{2} \int_{\overline{x}} G_{p}(\overline{x},\overline{x}^{\dagger};\omega) \sum_{ij} \psi_{ij}(\overline{x}) \overline{\xi}_{ij} d\overline{x}$$

$$(A.3)$$

where  $\rho$  is the density of the acoustic medium, and  $\sigma_{p}(\overline{x}/\overline{x}^{\prime};\omega)$  is the envity Green's function, defined by

$$\langle \mathcal{A}_{1}, (\overline{\mathbf{x}} / \overline{\mathbf{x}}), \omega \rangle = \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial_{i,j} (\overline{\mathbf{x}} ) \otimes \overline{\mathbf{x}}, \nabla}{\partial_{i,j} (\overline{\mathbf{x}} ) \otimes \overline{\mathbf{x}}, \nabla}$$

Here  $\phi_n(\overline{x})$  and  $\overline{\lambda}_n$  are the envity mode shape and eigenvalues while k is the acoustic wavenumber. The exterior force distribution consists of a point force of amplitude  $F(\omega)$  at frequency  $\omega$  located at  $\overline{x}=\overline{x}_p$  and the radiated pressure field  $p_0(\overline{x}^*)$ , and is given by

$$p^{\phi}(\overline{x}^{\dagger}) = P(\phi)^{\delta}(\overline{x}^{\dagger} - \overline{x}_{p}) + P(\phi)^{\delta}(\overline{x}^{\dagger})$$
(A.4)

From Eq. (A.1), the modal response is found as

$$\sum_{\alpha} \xi_{\alpha} \psi_{\alpha}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}) = \int \mathbf{G}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}, \overline{\mathbf{x}}'; \omega) \left[ \mathbb{P}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \delta(\overline{\mathbf{x}}' - \overline{\mathbf{x}}_{\mathbf{p}}) + \eta_{\alpha}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}') - \eta_{\alpha}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}') \right] \mathrm{d}\overline{\mathbf{x}}'$$

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Multiplying through by  $m(\overline{x})\psi_{_{\bf T}}(\overline{x})$  and integrating over the structural area, leaves

$$\mathbb{M}_{\mathbf{r}} \xi_{\mathbf{r}} = \int m(\overline{\mathbf{x}}) \psi_{\mathbf{r}}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}) \int G(\overline{\mathbf{x}}, \overline{\mathbf{x}}'; \omega) \left[ F(\omega) \delta(\overline{\mathbf{x}}' - \overline{\mathbf{x}}_{\mathbf{F}}) + p_2(\overline{\mathbf{x}}') - p_1(\overline{\mathbf{x}}') \right] d\overline{\mathbf{x}}' d\overline{\mathbf{x}} \quad (A.5)$$

Multiplying Eqs. (A.3) and (A.4) by  $\psi_r(\bar{x}')$  and integrating with respect to  $\bar{x}'$  leads to an expression for the generalized force  $\Gamma^r$  on the rth mode due to, respectively, the interior acoustic field  $\Gamma^r_{p_i}$ , the point force  $\Gamma^r_F$ , and the radiated pressure field  $\Gamma^r_{p_i}$ ; for example,

$$r_{p_{1}}^{r} = \int p_{1}(\overline{x}') \psi_{p}(\overline{x}') d\overline{x}'$$

$$= \sum_{s} \left[ -\rho \omega^{2} \int \psi_{p}(\overline{x}') \int G_{p}(\overline{x}/\overline{x}'; \omega) \psi_{s}(\overline{x}) d\overline{x} d\overline{x}' \right] \overline{\xi}_{s} \qquad (A.6a)$$
or 
$$r_{p_{1}}^{r} = -\rho \omega^{2} \sum_{s} I^{rs} \xi_{s}$$

where 
$$I_{rs} = \iint G_p(\bar{x}, \bar{x}'; \omega) \psi_r(\bar{x}') \psi_s(\bar{x}') d\bar{x} d\bar{x}'$$
 (A.6b)

is interior structural-acoustic coupling parameter

Similarly, 
$$\Gamma_F^r = F(\omega)\psi_r(\overline{x}_F)$$
 and 
$$\Gamma_{p_2}^r = \rho\omega^2 \sum_s J_{rs}$$
 where 
$$J_{rs} = \iint G_p^o (\overline{x}/\overline{x}';\omega) \psi_r(\overline{x}')\psi_s(\overline{x}) d\overline{x}d\overline{x}'$$

and  $G_p^{\circ}(\bar{x}/\bar{x}';\omega)$  is the Green's function for the radiated pressure field.  $\Gamma_p^r$  will be neglected from further analysis since its contribution is negligible in the present point force situation. Then, with  $\Gamma^r = \Gamma_F^r + \Gamma_{D_1}^r$  and, on substitution of Eqs. (A.6) and (A.7) into Eq. (A.5), the modal response equation becomes

$$\left[-Y_{r}M_{r} + \rho\omega^{2}I_{rr}\right]\xi_{r} + \rho\omega^{2}\sum_{s\neq r}I_{rs}\xi_{s} = -\Gamma^{r}$$

or in matrix form,

$$\left[ a_{rs} \right] \left\{ \xi_{s} \right\} = \left\{ -\Gamma^{r} \right\}$$

The solution is

$$\{\xi_{r}\} = \left[a_{rs}\right]^{-1} \left\{-r^{s}\right\} = \left[\tilde{a}_{rt}\right] \left\{-r^{t}\right\}$$
 (A.8)

where

$$\left[\bar{\alpha}_{rt}\right] = \left\{-Y_r M_r + \rho \omega^2 \sum_{s} I_{rs}\right\}^{-1} \tag{A.9}$$

Then, the total structural displacement  $W(\bar{x};\omega)$  is found from

Eq. (A.1) as

$$W(\bar{x};\omega) = -\sum_{r,t} \psi_r(\bar{x}) \bar{\alpha}_{rt} \Gamma^t(\omega)$$

(A.10)

$$= -\sum_{r} \psi_{r}(\bar{x}) \bar{\alpha}_{rr}(\omega) \Gamma^{r}(\omega)$$

on neglecting intermodal coupling terms which are generally small. Further, the acoustic effects will be negligible for the present structure in the sense that the acoustic reactance is much smaller than the structural reactance. Hence

$$\bar{\alpha}_{rr}(\omega) \simeq \left\{-Y_r M_r\right\}^{-1}$$

and  $\eta_{\,{\bf r}}$  is the sum of the structural and external radiation loss factors, and the structural response becomes

$$w(\bar{x},\omega) = F(\omega) \sum_{r} \frac{\psi_{r}(\bar{x})\psi_{r}(\bar{x}_{F})}{M_{r}Y_{r}}$$
 (A.11a)

$$= |H(j\omega)|e^{-j\phi}$$
 (A.11b)

which is a complex function.

The time average, mean square displacement at frequency  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ 

$$\overline{\mathbf{w}^{2}(\overline{\mathbf{x}},\omega)} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Re}\left[\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{w}^{*}\right]$$

$$= \frac{F^{2}(\omega)}{2} \left\{ \sum_{i} \frac{\psi_{i}^{2}(\overline{\mathbf{x}})\psi_{i}^{2}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_{F})}{|Y_{i}|^{2}M_{i}^{2}} + \operatorname{Re}\sum_{r} \sum_{s} \frac{\psi_{r}(\overline{\mathbf{x}})\psi_{s}(\overline{\mathbf{x}})\psi_{r}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_{F})\psi_{s}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_{F})}{|Y_{r}|^{2}M_{r}^{M}} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{F^{2}(\omega)}{2} \left\{ \sum_{i} \frac{\psi_{i}^{2}(\overline{\mathbf{x}})\psi_{i}^{2}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_{F})}{|Y_{i}|^{2}M_{i}^{2}} + \operatorname{Re}\sum_{r} \sum_{s} \frac{\psi_{r}(\overline{\mathbf{x}})\psi_{s}(\overline{\mathbf{x}})\psi_{r}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_{F})\psi_{s}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_{F})}{|Y_{r}|^{2}M_{r}^{M}} \right\}$$

Thus the structural response depends on the spectrum of the excitation force, the mode shapes at both the point of application of the force and the observation point, and on the modal masses and admittance function. The output from the finite element program STARDYNE used in this study is in the form of Eq. (A.11b) i.e. providing results in terms of magnitude and phase. Point-to-point comparison of measured results with prediction tend to be inaccurate; better agreement is found by making space-averaged comparisons, where the average is performed over at least five representative positions on the structural element of interest.

As frequency increases above the fundamental structural (whole-body) modes, the number of modes accumulates rapidly with frequency. Certain structural elements may tend to respond more strongly

(independently) than connected elements, and may tend to contribute most to the structural modal mass and hence kinetic energy at that resonance frequency. For example, as shown in other sections of this report, the M113 hull roof vibrates independently at about 65 Hz, contributing about 75% of the total modal mass for this mode. Further, in the one-third octave band centered on 160 Hz, F-E modeling predicts that the roof and floor respond more strongly than other hull elements, there being about 7 modes in this frequency band. An estimate for the space-averaged, mean-square displacement to a band-limited force excitation of mean-square force in  $\Delta\omega$  of  $F_{\Delta}^2$  for each of the major structural elements is of considerable interest and use in the evaluation of the effects of structural modifications on hull vibration response and the associated interior acoustic radiation.

The space-average, mean-square displacement, for an element A of the structure, averaged over a narrow frequency band containing several resonant modes  $(r\epsilon\Delta\omega)$ ,  $\overline{w}_{\Delta-A}^2$ , is found as

$$\overline{w_{\Lambda,\Lambda}^{2}} = F_{\Lambda}^{2} \sum_{r \in \Lambda \omega} \frac{\left[\frac{1}{\Lambda} \int_{A} \psi_{r}^{2}(\overline{x}) d\overline{x}\right] \psi_{r}^{2}(\overline{x}_{F})}{M_{r}^{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\Lambda \omega} \int_{\Delta \omega} |Y_{r}|^{-2} d\omega$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{2\omega^{3}} \cdot \frac{F_{\Lambda}^{2}}{\Lambda \omega} \sum_{r \in \Lambda \omega} \frac{\left[\frac{1}{\Lambda} \int_{A} \psi_{r}^{2}(\overline{x}) d\overline{x}\right] \psi_{r}^{2}(\overline{x}_{F})}{M_{r}^{2} \eta_{r}} \tag{A.12}$$

Here the modal cross-coupling terms ( $r \neq s$ ) do not contribute to the response and the response is dominated by the resonant modal contributions. Further  $\overline{w}_{\Delta,\Lambda}^2$  and  $F_{\Delta}^2$  have units of (displacement) and (force) respectively.

STARDYNE calculates values of  $\psi_{\mathbf{r}}(\bar{\mathbf{x}})$  at model nodes, so that on manipulation of the output files, the quantity in square braces [], which represents the degree of restraint provided by the remainder of the structure, can be calculated for each major structural element e.g. floor, roof, upper side plate, sponson. In detail, the calculation is found from

$$\frac{1}{\Lambda} \int_{A} \psi_{r}^{2} (\bar{x}) d\bar{x} = \frac{1}{\Lambda} \sum_{j \in A} \psi_{r}^{2} (i,j) A(j)$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{\Lambda} \sum_{j \in \Lambda} \psi_{r}^{2} (3,j) A(j)$$
(A.13)

where A(j) is the area associated with the j<sup>th</sup> mode and where i and j represent the nodal coordinate directions and node number respectively, but only the coordinate normal to the surface (3) is important.

The contribution of structural elements to the total modal mass can be calculated as

$$M_{r,A} = \int_{\Lambda} m(\overline{x}) \psi_{r}^{2}(\overline{x}) d\overline{x} = \sum_{i} \sum_{j \in \Lambda} m(i,j) \psi_{r}^{2}(i,j)$$

$$\simeq \sum_{j \in \Lambda} m(3,j) \psi_{r}^{2}(3,j)$$

$$(\Lambda.14)$$

where normal displacements are most important. Here  $M(i,\,j)$  is the modal mass of the  $j^{th}$  mode referred to the  $i^{th}$  coordinate direction.

At higher frequencies the element mode shapes will be essentially sinusoidal, and Eq. (A.14) reduces, using band-averaged concepts, to

$$\overline{W_{\Lambda,\Lambda}^2} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega^2} \cdot \overline{V_{\Lambda}^2} \cdot \frac{n_{P,\Lambda}(\omega)}{\Lambda^2 m_{\Lambda}^2} \cdot \frac{\psi_{P}^2(\overline{x}_F)}{\overline{\eta}_{P}}$$
(A.15)

where  $F_{\Lambda}^2$  is the time-average, mean-square force input at  $\overline{x}_F$  in band  $\Lambda\omega$ .  $n_{r,\Lambda}(\omega)$  is the modal density of the structural element of area  $\Lambda$  and surface density  $m_{\Lambda}$ , and where  $\overline{\psi_r^2}(\overline{x}_F)$  and  $\overline{\eta}_r$  are average values of  $\psi_r^2(x_F)$  and  $\overline{\eta}_r$  (assuming equal loss factors for each element). The relative energy levels between different structural elements is determined at high frequency by the element modal density, mass and area, while the coupling of the force to the structure is described by  $\overline{\psi_r^2}(\overline{x}_F)$ .

A reduction in response level will be produced as the force input, the modal density, and the modal displacement at the point of application of the force, are reduced.

# Acoustic Power Radiated to Interior Acoustic Field

The time-averaged acoustic power being radiated due to the motion of the rth structural mode is given in terms of the modal radiation resistance by [A2].

$$W_{\text{rad}}^{r}(\omega) = R_{\text{rad}}^{r}(\omega_{r}) \langle v_{r}^{2} \rangle$$
 (A.16)

where  $\langle v^2 \rangle = \omega^2 \langle w_r^2 \rangle$ , is the space-time average, mean-square velocity of the rth mode. If there are N modes in a frequency band of width  $\Delta \omega$ , the total time average power radiated is found by summing each modal contribution (assuming modes independent) i.e.

$$W_{\text{rad}}|_{\Delta} = \sum_{r \in \Delta \omega}^{N} R_{rad}^{r}(\omega) \langle v_{r}^{2} \rangle$$
 (A.17)

Assuming that equipartition of energy between the r modes applies, this reduces to

$$W_{\Delta} = v_{\Delta}^{2} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r \in \Delta \omega}^{N} R_{rad}^{r} (\omega)$$

$$= v_{\Delta}^{2} \cdot \overline{R_{rad}}$$
(A.18)

where  $v_{\Delta}^2$  is the space-average, mean-square velocity of the radiating surface and  $\overline{R}_{\rm rad}$  is the band-averaged radiation resistance. Eq. (A.12) may be used to calculate  $v_{\Delta}^2$ , and  $\overline{R}_{\rm rad}$  can be calculated using the methods of statistical energy analysis [A4]. Then, for an element A of structure, the band-limited radiated acoustic power (in watts) is found as

$$W_{\Lambda,\Lambda} = \omega^2 \overline{W_{\Lambda,\Lambda}^2} \cdot \overline{R_{\text{rad},\Lambda}^2}$$

$$= \frac{\pi^2 F_{\Lambda}^2}{2^2 \omega \Lambda \omega} \cdot \sum_{\mathbf{r} \in \Lambda \omega} \frac{\left[\frac{1}{\Lambda} \int_{\Lambda} \psi_{\mathbf{r}}^{\mathbf{r}}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}) d\overline{\mathbf{x}}\right] \psi_{\mathbf{r}}^{\mathbf{r}}(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_{\mathbf{p}})}{\overline{R_{\mathbf{rad},\Lambda}^2}} \cdot \overline{R_{\mathbf{rad},\Lambda}^2}$$
(A.19)

As before, using modal density relations and band-averaged expressions,

$$W_{\Lambda,\Lambda} = \frac{2\pi F_{\Lambda}^{2}}{\omega} \cdot \frac{n_{P,\Lambda}(\omega)}{m_{\Lambda}^{2}\Lambda^{2}} \cdot \frac{\overline{\psi_{P}^{2}}(\overline{x}_{F})}{\overline{\eta}_{P}} \cdot \overline{R}_{PAd,\Lambda}$$
 (A.20)

It is clear that the power inflow depends on the magnitude of the force input, the radiation efficiency ( $\sigma = R_{\rm rad}/\Lambda\rho c$ ), modal density, loss factor and mass of the driven structure, as well as on the mode shapes at the point of application of the force Moise reductions will correspond to reductions in  $W_{\Delta}$ , and can be related to changes in those quantities shown in Eqs. (A.19) and (A.CL) on which  $W_{\Delta}$  depends. For example, if  $\psi_{\rm r}^2(\overline{x}_{\rm F})$  can be reduced

by a factor of 10, a 10dB noise reduction will be produced, all other parameters remaining fixed.

At those frequencies where several acoustic modes occur in the analysis band, the band-averaged radiation resistance will provide a good estimate for the structural-acoustic coupling.

Eqs. (A.15) for the band-averaged mean-square displacement  $\mathbf{w}_{\Delta\omega}^2(\omega)$  and (A.20) for the band-averaged acoustic nower flow  $\mathbf{w}_{\Delta\omega}(\omega)$  incorporate statistical descriptors for the structure, as employed in Statistical Energy Analysis, but also includes a parameter  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}_p^2(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_p)$  which describes the coupling between the point force and the structural modal response. Values for  $\overline{\mathbf{v}}_p^2(\overline{\mathbf{x}}_p)$  are calculated from the finite element model for the hull structure in the present problem, (but may be compared to the coupling loss factor  $\mathbf{n}_{12}$  used in Statistical Energy Analysis). Thus the detailed results from the hull modal analysis can be matched directly with statistical descriptors for the structure in calculation of the potential for vibration and noise reduction associated with various structural modifications.

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# APPENDIX B STARDYNE Input and Output Data

Table B.1 STAR Input Data
Table B.2 STAR Output Data
Table B.3 DYNRE2 Input Data
Table B.4 DYNRE2 Output Data

Table B.1 STAR Input Data

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Table B.2 STAR Output Data

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## Table B.4 DYNRE2 Output Data

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\*\*\*\*\* PSINT-13-FCINT TEANEFOW FUNCTIONS \*\*\*\*\* MISSEL WOLL OYNAMIC MODEL - FMC COFFDRATION

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GENERALIZED (MCDAL) FORCE COMPONENTS

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\*\*\* COMPUTE FREQUENCIES \*\*\* AMPS \*\*\*

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MAK CORE FOR THIS OVERLAY MULUSGGLOGOCGOGOTZILG \*\*\* CUMPUTE GENERALIZED FORCES \*\*\* FOTRS \*\*\*

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Table B.4 (cont.)

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LINEAR PLOT OF FETATIC RISFONSES

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## APPENDIX C STARDYNE Input and Output Data Revised Hull Model

Table C.1 STAR Input Data
Table C.2 STAR Output Data
Table C.3 DYNRE2 Input Data
Table C.4 DYNRE2 Output Data

Table C.1 STAR Input Data

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26	MODEC 117 119	1 -1.205	27.2 6.833	-3.015 27.2	20.5	NUUEL
29	MQ06 CRD1 107 110	1 -3.615	49.0 20.5	-4.70 44.0	55.0	NJUE
30	MODEGRO2 407 410	100 22.0	44.0 20.5	110 444 6	<b>&gt;&gt;.</b> 0	MUUEG
31	MODEGROL 407 414	1 22.0	49.0 20.5	22.0 49.0 134.0 49.0 -9.70 0.0 27.0 0.0 26.0 0.0	55.0	NUUEL
32			49.0 20.5	134.0 44.0	55.0	NUUEG
33			44.0 55.0	-4.70 U.O	22.0	MUDEL
, 4	MUDECADE 410 410		44.0 55.0	27.0 0.0	>>.0	NUDEL
33	MUDEGRUL 410 416		44.0 55.0	24.0 0.0	55.0	HUDE
36			49.0 55.0	114.0 V.0	>>-0	MUDEL
37			30.1 32.1	-5.646 27.2	32.0	Nubfi
36	MODEC 155 15			-7.670 27.2	43.5	MUDEL
39	MG016 716 816		0.0 55.0	93.0 0.0		
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Table C.1 (cont.)

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•0	HGHT	107	61.	61		61.								MONT
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63	HGHT	300	61.	61		ni.								WURT
04	# G"4T	307	61.	51	•	61.								WUNT
65	<b>w</b> GHT	406	61.	<b>b</b> 1	•	61.								MGHT
66	HGHT	407	61.	61.	•	61.								MUHT
67	WGHT	710	22.3	22.	. 3	22.5								WGHT
6.0	WCHT	715	44.7	• • •	. /	44./								WGHT
69	MCHI	415	44.7	44	. 7	44.7								#UNT
70	HCHI	810	22.1	< Z	. 3	22.3								<b>d</b> th!
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74	4 CH I	413	10.3			10.1								WGHT
75	HGHT	513	10.3			10.5								BUHT
76	H GM F	611	10.3			13.1								MCHT
17	WG-IT	014	20.6			20.0								MCHT
70	WGHT	610	20.0			20.0								WCHT
79	HGHT	610	10.)			10.								#GHT
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61	MCHT	1015	19.6			14.0								HUHT
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Table C.1 (cont.)

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15	BPKJPI	•	1.92	0.0				4.09								6 P R J
16	UPRUPL	Š	0.61	4.73				1.67								BPRI
17	MPHUPI		3.77	1.75				0.70								BPR
1.0	BPRUFI	7	3.50	8.54				6.43								SPRI
19	BPHUPL	i	3.75	1.75				9.70								SPHI
20	BPRUPI	9	5.52	4.64				11.16								#Pn(
₹1	BPRUPL	10	2.52	4.84	-			11.00								SPRI
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23	MPRUPI	14	3.52	4.84	. 21.	. 11		15.77								6P#(
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135	UUADB	•	114	106	150		146									BUA
30	UUADO	•	121	150	127		163									QUA
137	QUA38	6	121	122	114		113									OUAL
1 38	HUADE	7	106	107	108		120									OUA
. 19	QUADS	6	150	108	104		156									OUA
40	UUADS	4	127	104	110		111									QUAL
41	-11406	10		100 500				50			1.					U UAU
142	UUA34	17	16 600	50 650	50 651		601									SUA
143	UUADE	_		100 800												QUA:
1 4 5	OUADB OUADB	27	58 PUT	100 501	50 652		705	50								QUA
146	BCAUD	29		100 401												QUA:
147	OUADS	34		100 202												QUAL
148	UUAU b	34	90 604	30 024	50 653		603									UUA
149	UUADB	41		100 802												OUA
150	JUADE	40		100 203							1.4	. >				QUA
151	QUADE	51		100 204												QUA
152	QUADB	50	604	653	704	•	60>									UUA
153	QUADE	57	60 703			100	704	100								JUA
154	UUADB	61	1103	1201	1407		4 1 0 4									QUA
155	DUAUB	• • • •		100 205				100			1.	"				QUA
150	JUADS	9.7	603	704	105		.0.				- •					QUA
157	QUAUB	66	71 704	100 804		100	706	100			1	25				QUA
150	QUADa	72	1104	1207	1411											JUA
159	OUADE	73	62 106	100 206	100 207	100	107	100			0.5	0				JUA
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103	PQAUG		112 104		100 510	TOO IIO							GUAUS
100	PUADE				100 511				1.70				BUADS
Lo?	OUADE		134 111			100 115	100						OUADA
168	BUAUD	13>	1011	1111	4113	1001							GUAUR
100	BOADO	136		100 515			100						QUADS
L 70	GUAUB	145	1003	1113	1112	7012							QUAGE
171	HUADB	146	ten III	100 213		100 114							QUADO
172	SOAUE	149	154 613	100 711	100 714	100 614	100						HOADS
173	SCAUL	193	135 114	100 214	100 215	100 115	100						CURUS
174	SCAUS	Lon	159 614	100 714	100 715	100 013	100						COVOR
175	DUADS	160	162 115	100 215	100 215	100 116	100						QUADE
176	BCAUG	163	164 615	200 715	200 716	919 NO2	500						BUADE
177	BOAUE	165	1671200	£1504	1140>	10501	1						UUADu
178	DUADE	168	1701204	11508	11504	11405							CUADS
179	GUADE		1731213	11509	11510	11214	1						JUADS
1.00	QUADS	1/4	1761217	11213	14219	11/10							BUADe
181	GUADS		1701115		11510	Lills	-6						GUADL
182	JUADA	174	1111	1214	1420		_						QUAUS
183	QUADB	180	900	409		915			0.65				SOADS
104	QUADB	101	901	1001		YL							JUAUG
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l de	DYNAMIC			******	.,			5,	300				MANYC
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Table C.2 STAR Output Data

TOTAL TUTAL	ESTIMATED TIME	Me - 20'1.5		* CECEMALS *	21.0	PER LUAD CASE (FULL PROCES	
101							
5	AL TIME	IF I LUAD CASE	SE = 303.5	CUE CIRALD	IFULL IFUL	COTPUT PRICESSINGS	
Tul	=	10 LUAU		(ULLIMAL)	FULL		
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SPACES MODEL ENTRACTION REFINED HULLAGUEL ANTISTARLINIC NOLES

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